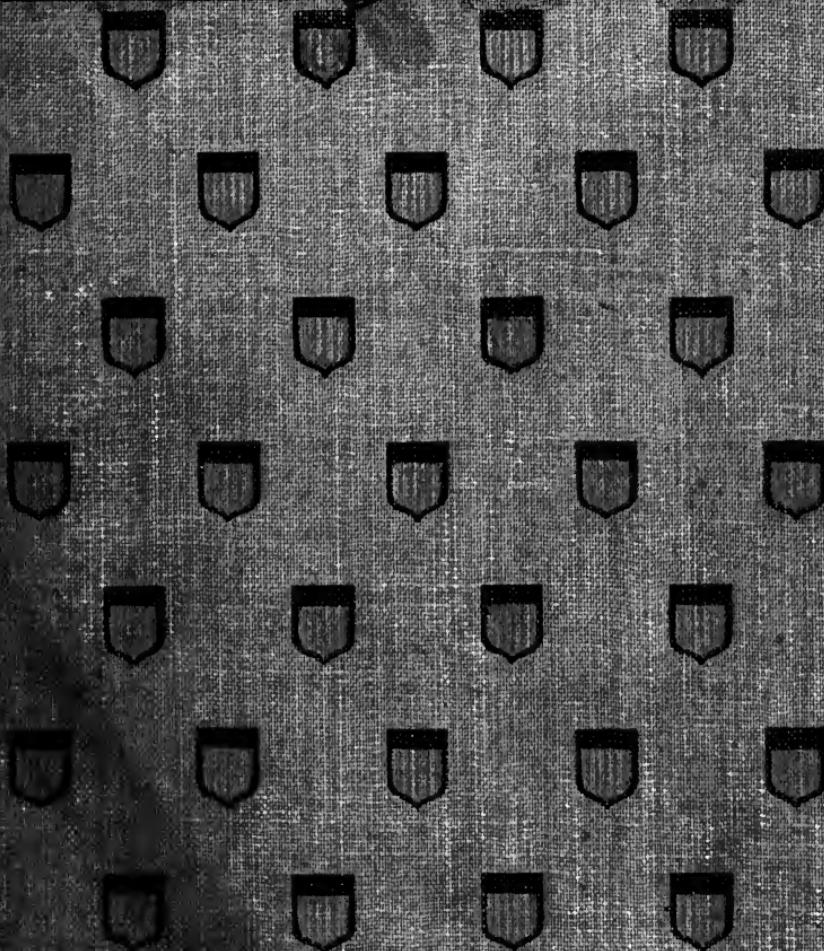


THE YOUNG AMERICAN

EDITION



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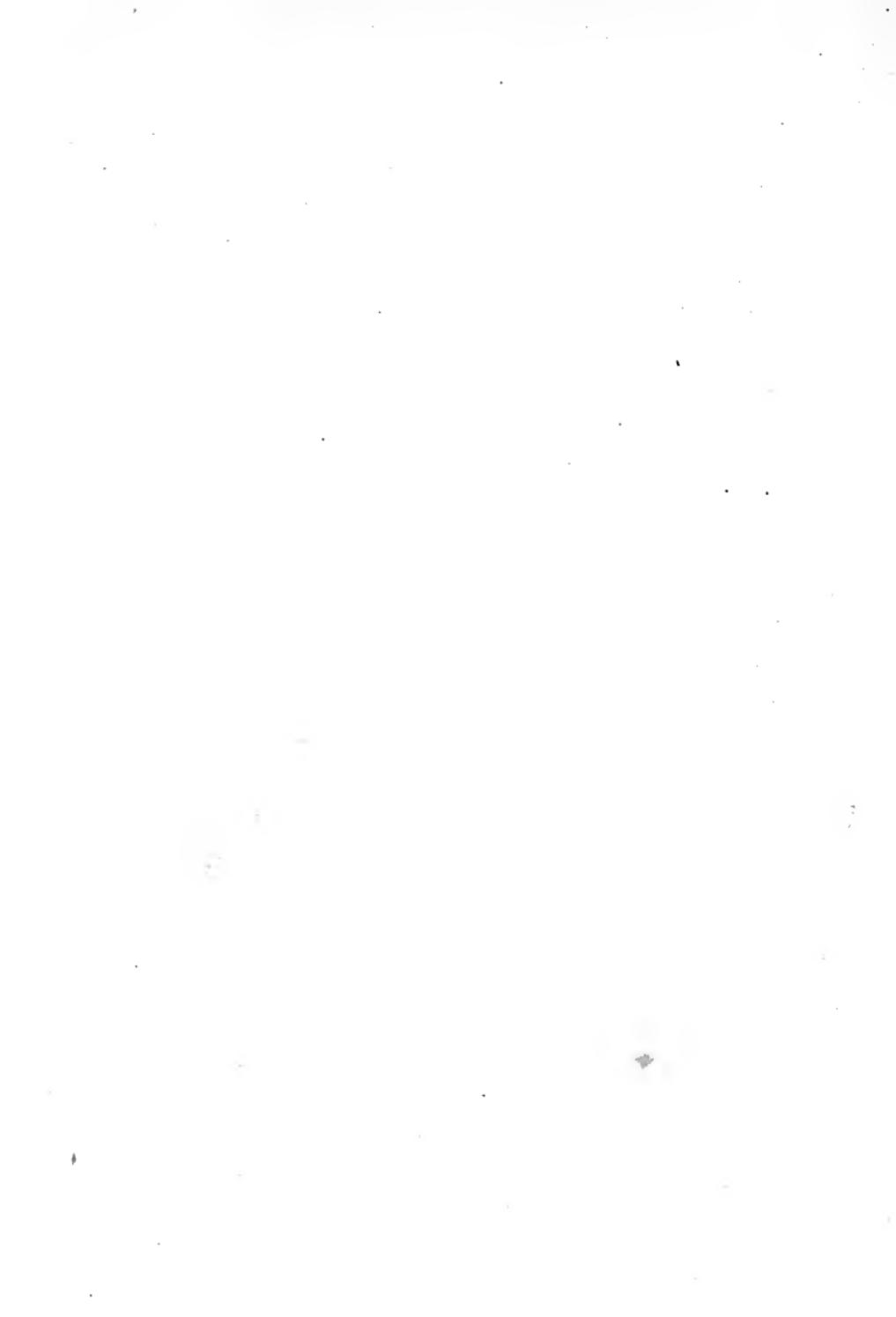
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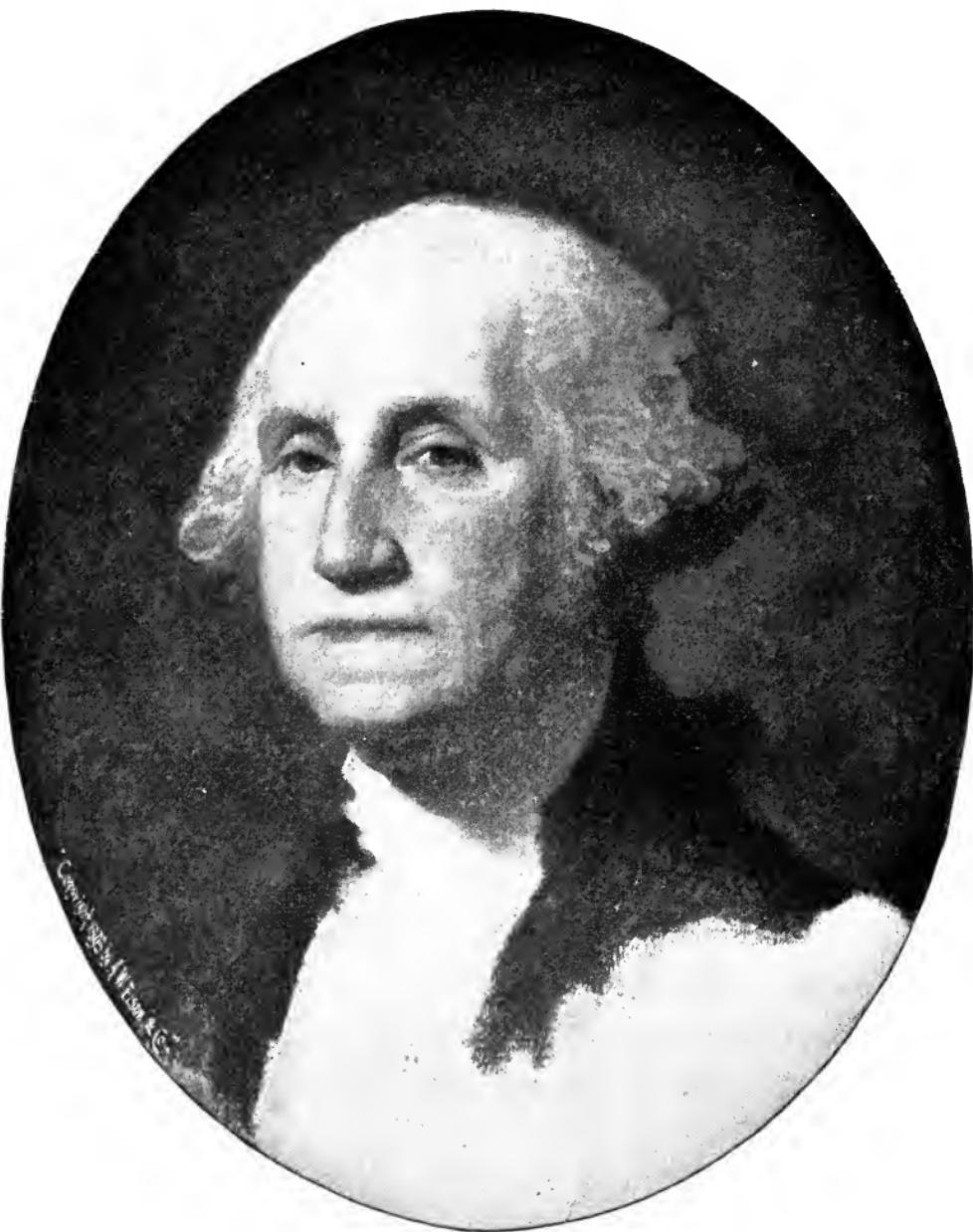
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GEORGE WASHINGTON

THE YOUNG AMERICAN



A
CIVIC READER

BY

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HEAD PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL SCIENCE
IN THE
UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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THE interest of the day is not that of mere study, of sound scholarship as an end, of good books for their own sake, but of education as a power in human affairs ; of educated men as an influence in the commonwealth. "Tell me," said an American scholar of Goethe, the many-sided, "what did he ever do for the cause of man ?" The scholar, the poet, the philosopher, are men among other men. From these unavoidable social relations spring opportunities and duties. How do they use them ? How do they discharge them ? Does the scholar show in his daily walk that he has studied the wisdom of ages in vain ? Does the poet sing of angelic purity and lead an unclean life ? Does the philosopher peer into other worlds, and fail to help this world upon its way ? Four years before our Civil War, the same scholar—it was Theodore Parker—said sadly : " If our educated men had done their duty, we should not now be in the ghastly condition we bewail."—*George William Curtis.*



PREFACE

REALING is more than mere elocution. It implies good articulation, accent, inflection, modulation of voice, and all the rest that has to do with using the vocal organs as a mechanism for conveying ideas. But all this is merely mechanical unless there is also a clear comprehension of the meaning of the ideas to be conveyed. One may perhaps learn to pronounce a foreign language without understanding it. But such rendering of a piece of literature in that tongue would be highly unintelligent.

A book adapted to practice in reading, then, may be in one of two forms. It may contain merely a variety of selections, carefully graded to the average capacity of pupils of a given age, and by the variety of its contents affording a wide range of interest and exercise. Or it may throughout follow one main line of thought, with such incidental variety as may be convenient. The former is obviously preferable for the main work of teaching to read. But no one learns to read without also learning many things from what he reads. And if this learning, incidental in the use of most reading books, is made more prominent, it is clear that a book might well be constructed on the second plan.

This is the thought which underlies the present volume. It is intended to fulfill a double function—to afford exercise in reading, and at the same time to give such knowledge as, being treated continuously, instead of in the usual fragmentary manner, may be of substantial value.

Nothing need be said of the importance of the study of our civil institutions in the schools. It is a well-known fact that the great

mass of boys and girls finish their schooling in the lower grades. Few reach the high school, still fewer get to college. Whatever teachers can do, then, in the direction of good citizenship, must be done early, or not at all.

But much can be done. In many ways love of country may be fostered. No little knowledge of the structure and working of our government may be imparted; and it is quite possible to give a very definite notion of the rights and duties of citizenship. This must be done, however, by the teacher. No text-book alone will answer. Whatever aid of that nature is furnished must be supplemented by the teacher's living knowledge and constant interest.

It is the hope of the author that this book may serve as a help to teachers in such work—as the nucleus around which such work may gather. Of course each teacher will use it in his own way. But in the appendix will be found a few suggestions which may be helpful.

There has been no attempt to make a comprehensive treatise on civics, or on American history. The outlines only of our system of government have been sketched, leaving the teacher to fill in the sketch and to adapt it to his particular locality as he may see fit. As to history, that has been treated only when it seemed necessary for understanding given existing institutions. The author will be more than satisfied if the brief historical discussions suffice to illuminate the various topics of government, and at the same time prove suggestive—a stimulus to wider reading and more exact knowledge.

The selections which are scattered through the chapters, in prose and verse, it will be seen are largely from American authors. Of course many more might have been added. But perhaps there are sufficient for the purpose.

The book is submitted with the hope that it may aid in teaching genuine patriotism and intelligent citizenship.

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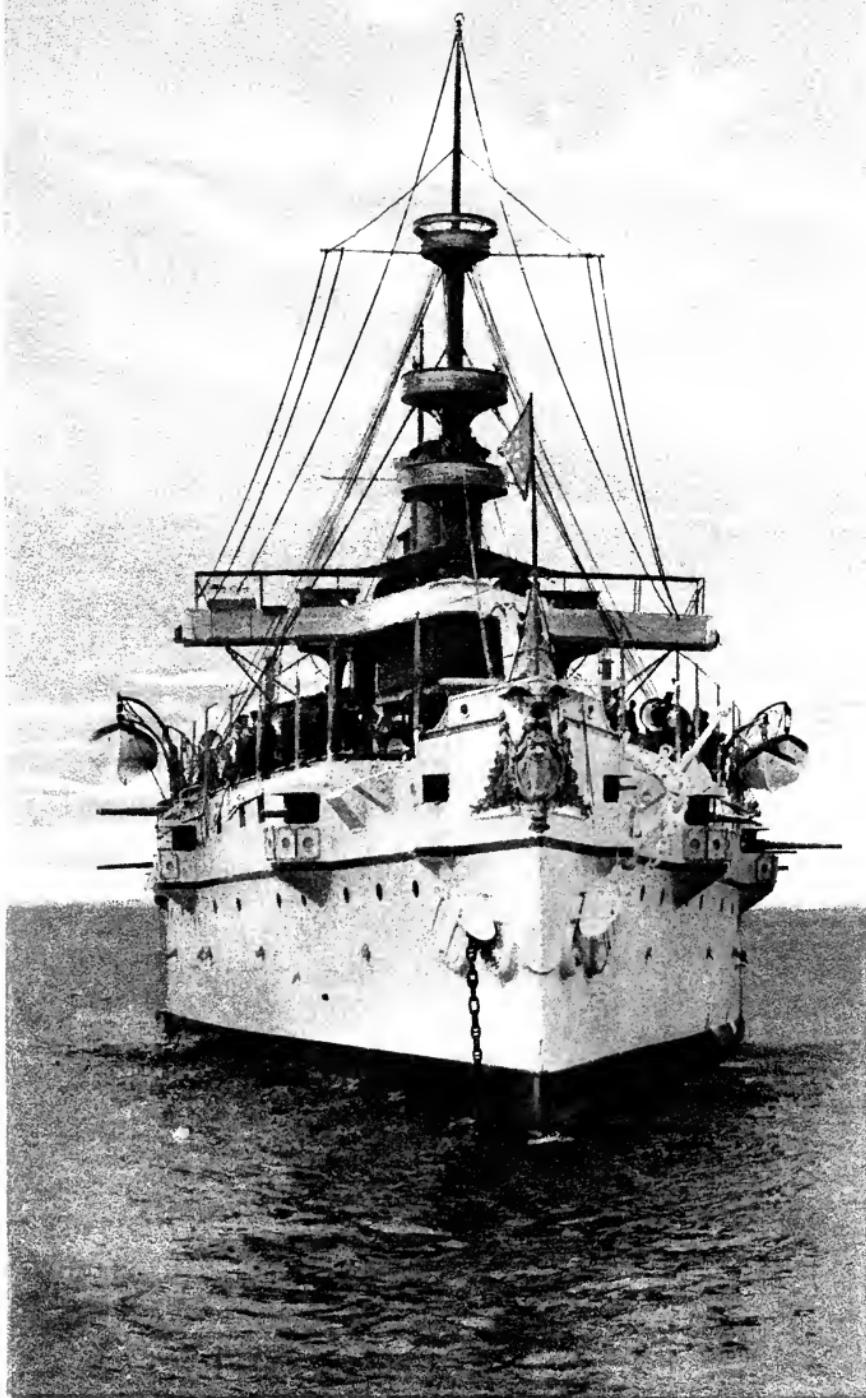
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A UNITED STATES CRUISER.

THE YOUNG AMERICAN



THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON

The national capitol is a very noble and dignified building. It is built of sandstone and marble, with a multitude of stately columns, and a majestic dome towering over all. The entire building covers three and one-half acres. Crowning a lofty hill and surrounded by spacious grounds, the capitol is a conspicuous object at a distance of many miles.

The corner-stone was laid by President Washington, September 18, 1793. The wings of the central part were completed in 1811, and were burned by the British in 1814. The entire central part was finished in 1827. The present large wings were begun in 1851, and the great iron dome was completed in 1865.

The building faces east. The north wing contains the senate chamber, the south wing that of the house of representatives. The supreme court meets in the old senate chamber, in one of the original wings. At the main entrances are magnificent bronze doors, and the halls and corridors are rich with statuary and historical paintings.

CHAPTER I

Our Country

1. Why We Love Our Country.—Every good American citizen loves his country and is proud of it. We have very good reasons both for the love and for the

pride. Ours is one of the greatest nations of the world, in area of territory, in number of people, in wealth and in power. We also think that the citizens of the great republic are among the most intelligent in the world. Free public schools make it possible for every one to get some sort of an education, and books and newspapers are found in every home. But better still is the liberty which we enjoy. We have no king or emperor to rule over us. We choose our own officers of state, who, indeed, are not our rulers, but are merely public servants. In some countries the police are constantly interfering with people. A public meeting cannot be held without the consent of the police. The police watch the hotel registers and keep careful track of all strangers. If a club or a debating society is formed, the police have to be notified. Then, too, every young man has to spend several years as a soldier—for most of the nations of Europe keep vast armies always ready for war. Now, with us the policeman and the soldier are much less prominent. As long as one is not a thief or some other sort of criminal, the police let one quite alone. And no one in our country needs to be a soldier at all. Our few soldiers are all volunteers. In short, we live in a free land, in which every one may live his life in his own way, so long as he does not interfere with the rights of his neighbors.

2. These are some reasons for loving our country. There are many other reasons too, but perhaps these are enough to show what we mean. Still, it may be as well to add one more—it is our home. There are few words dearer to any genuine man or woman than *home*.

But just as the home is the center of the life of the family, so our country is the center of the nation's life. It is our home land—the land of our fathers and mothers, of our brothers and sisters. And he is a poor ingrate who does not dearly love his home.

3. What We Mean by a Patriot.—A patriot is one who loves his fatherland—his country. People show patriotism in various ways. In time of war, when the national safety is menaced by a public enemy, men are ready to enter the army and to give their lives, if need be, in defence of their country. A true patriot, too, is pleased by everything which reflects credit on his homeland. He is anxious that its public affairs shall be stained with no meanness or dishonor. He is anxious that its government shall always be just



MONUMENT OF NATHAN HALE

Captain Nathan Hale, of the revolutionary army, was a young graduate of Yale College, who went into the service soon after the battle of Lexington. Having entered the British lines in New York to get information for General Washington, he was detected, and was hanged as a spy, September 22, 1776. His last words were, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

and generous in dealing with the governments of other nations. He does not wish an advantage secured from any other nation, especially from a weaker one, by wanton violence or by fraud. He is delighted with every advance of his country in the arts of civilization, and pained at the triumph of evil men or of vicious measures. And he is always ready to do what he can to make his country better or stronger or safer.

4. What a Patriot is Not.—We have seen some of the reasons which an American has for being proud of his country. But in order to be a patriot it is not at all necessary to be a boaster. Indeed, a true patriot is so sure of the solid merit of his country that he does not need to say much about it. If a man is in the habit of talking about his own honesty, it leads others to suspect that perhaps after all he is trying to cover up a streak of dishonesty. At any rate, bragging is a weak and foolish habit. And bragging of one's country is quite as foolish as it is for a boy to boast of his father's wealth or of his sister's beauty.

5. Neither is it a sign of patriotism to despise other countries. We may love our own the best, but one who does not know that other countries also are great and powerful and famous, is merely very ignorant. If we respect other nations for their good qualities, we are all the better fitted to understand and admire the like qualities in our own.

6. Sneering at other races is no sign of patriotism. Boys and girls sometimes are apt to think themselves better than one of their mates who was born in a foreign land, and to show their superiority by using for him some sort

of foolish nickname. But this is very silly. Is he a German? The Germans have some of the greatest names and have done some of the greatest deeds in all history. Is he an Italian? Italy is a beautiful land, famous for some of the finest painters and musicians, and for some of the wisest statesmen and the bravest soldiers of any land. Is he a Jew? They are a wonderful people, and a list of the great men who are Jews would be a very long one. Indeed, one may well be glad and proud to belong to any of these races, or of many others which might be mentioned.

The True Patriotism

An English poet's idea of what patriotism means

WILLIAM WATSON

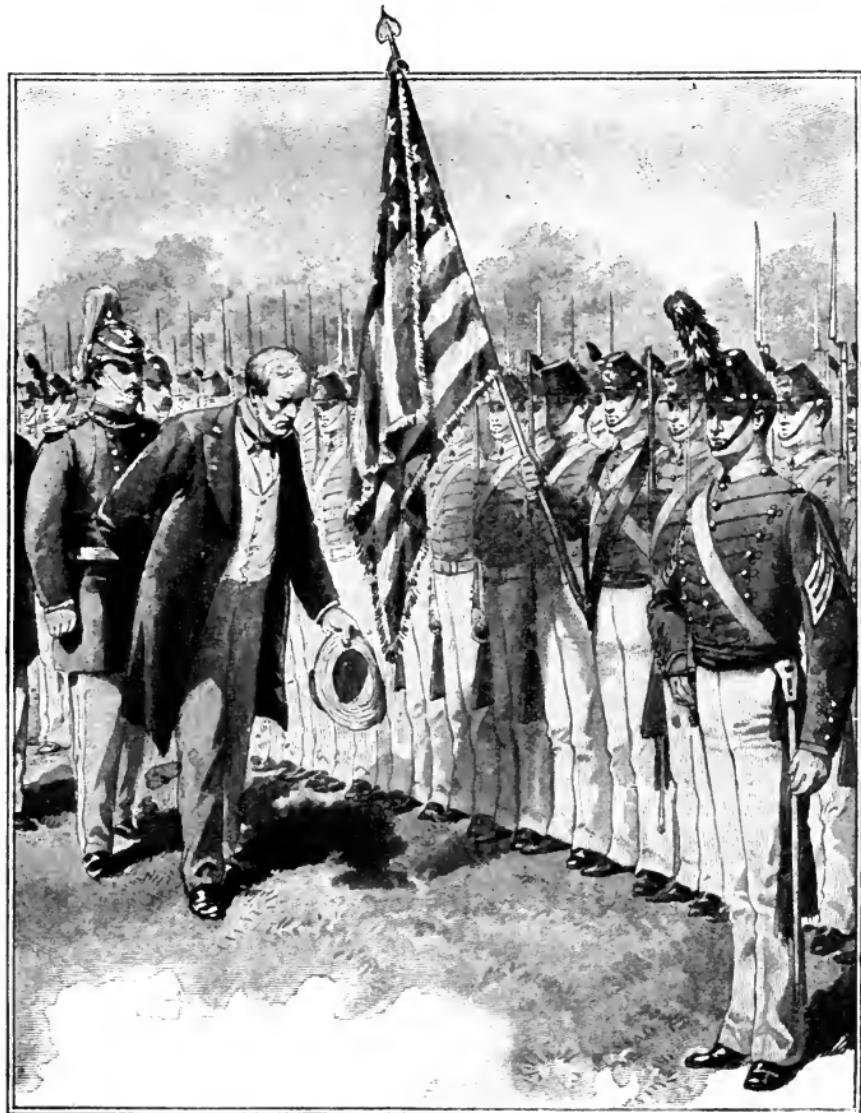
THE ever lustrous name of patriot
To no man may be denied because he saw
Where in his country's wholeness lay the flaw,
Where, on her whiteness, the unseemly blot.
England! thy loyal sons condemn thee. What!
Shall we be meek who from thine own breasts drew
Our fierceness? Not ev'n *thou* shalt overawe
Us thy proud children nowise basely got.
Be this the measure of our loyalty—
To feel thee noble, and weep thy lapse the more.
This truth by thy true servants is confess'd—
Thy sins, who love thee most, do most deplore.
Know thou thy faithful! Best they honor thee
Who honor in thee only what is best.

7. What a Patriot Should Know.—It is not enough for a patriot to *think* that his country is a very good and comfortable land. No opinion is worth much unless it comes from actual knowledge. It is a very commonly observed fact that the more ignorant people are, the more they are stuffed with prejudices. But prejudice is merely a strong opinion which is formed with a very scanty basis of knowledge. Now, in fact, no opinion is worth much, as we said, unless it belongs to one who knows what he is talking about. A jeweler who has spent all his life in a city, probably would not know much about farming. If, then, he should go into the country and begin giving a farmer advice about the management of his crops, the farmer would laugh at him. The jeweler's opinion about repairing a watch would doubtless be better than the farmer's, but, on the other hand, the farmer would be apt to know more about planting corn. In other words, it is knowledge that gives an opinion its value.

8. Then, our opinions about our country are not worth very much unless we know something of its history. We ought to know how it is governed, how the laws are made, how they are enforced, what the courts are and how they do their work, what are the rights of a citizen and what are not his rights. We ought to know how our country came to be what it is, who are some of the great men it has produced, and what they have done. With some of this knowledge our opinions are much less likely to be mere prejudices.

9. There is another important reason for knowing something about the way in which our country is governed.

With us about every man of full age, that is, twenty-one years old or over, is a voter. The most of all public officers are elected. And a voter is not very useful whose ideas of what he is voting for are in a fog. He is easily led by shrewd and unscrupulous demagogues ; he is simply a



GENERAL W. T. SHERMAN SALUTING THE FLAG AT WEST POINT

tool, a slave. It is often said that knowledge is power. We might add that knowledge of public affairs is liberty.

10. The Flag.—Every nation has a flag of its own, with an appropriate combination of colors and symbols. This flag flies from the mast of a ship on the ocean, thus indicating at once to what country she belongs. The flag is raised on a staff in forts and military camps, is carried by soldiers on the march and in battle, and is used very commonly by people in token of their patriotism. On the Fourth of July we see the American flag everywhere, and it is the custom now in many parts of the country to keep it floating over the school-houses whenever school is in session. The American flag has thirteen horizontal stripes, seven red and six white. In the upper corner, next the staff, is a blue square filled with white stars. The thirteen stripes indicate the thirteen original states, and the stars show the number of states. When a new state is admitted, on the next Fourth of July a new star is added to the flag.

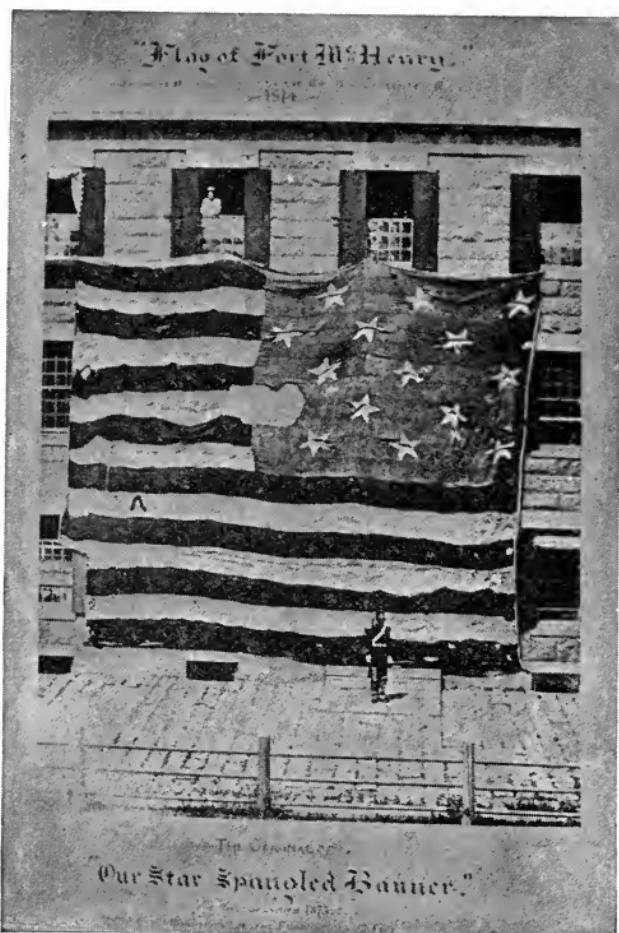
11. There are now forty-five states in the Union. But no flag made before July 4, 1896, should have more than forty-four stars. Utah became a state January 4, 1896. Every flag hoisted over a national fort or ship or building, on the third of July, 1896, had forty-four stars, showing the number of states on the Fourth of July, 1895, but on the morning of the Fourth of July, 1896, every such flag should have had forty-five stars.

12. How a Famous Song was Written.—During the second war with England, in 1814, a British expedition attempted to capture the city of Baltimore. In order to

do that it was necessary first to reduce Fort McHenry, and so the warships moved up near it and opened a heavy fire of cannon-balls, bomb-shells, and rockets.* During the battle a small party of Americans, carrying a flag of truce, went out to the British fleet in order to secure the release of an American citizen who had been taken prisoner. One of the party with the flag of truce was Francis Scott Key. The business being finished, the Americans were detained overnight in the fleet, far to the rear of the attack, in order that they might not be able to give information of what they had seen. The bombardment went on long after dark, and Mr. Key eagerly listened to the sound of the guns and watched the red rockets and the bursting bombs, being sure as long as the firing continued that the fort still held out. But late in the night the guns became silent. Did it mean that the attack had been repulsed? Or had the fort surrendered? Only the daylight would tell. Before dawn the anxious Americans were watching. The first faint light of day showed them the stars and stripes still floating over the ramparts of the fort. Then they knew that the attack had failed and that the Americans were victorious. Mr. Key walked the deck in deep emotions of joy, and gave vent to his feelings in the verses of a patriotic song. These he scribbled on a scrap of paper which he found in his pocket. On reaching land he gave his song to a friend, and it was sung at a

* Not long before the war of 1812 an English officer named Congreve invented a rocket which, acting on the same principle as our well-known sky-rocket, could be thrown quite accurately at an enemy. It proved, however, to be a missile which looked more dangerous than it really was. The Congreve rocket was used by the British in many battles of the war of 1812.

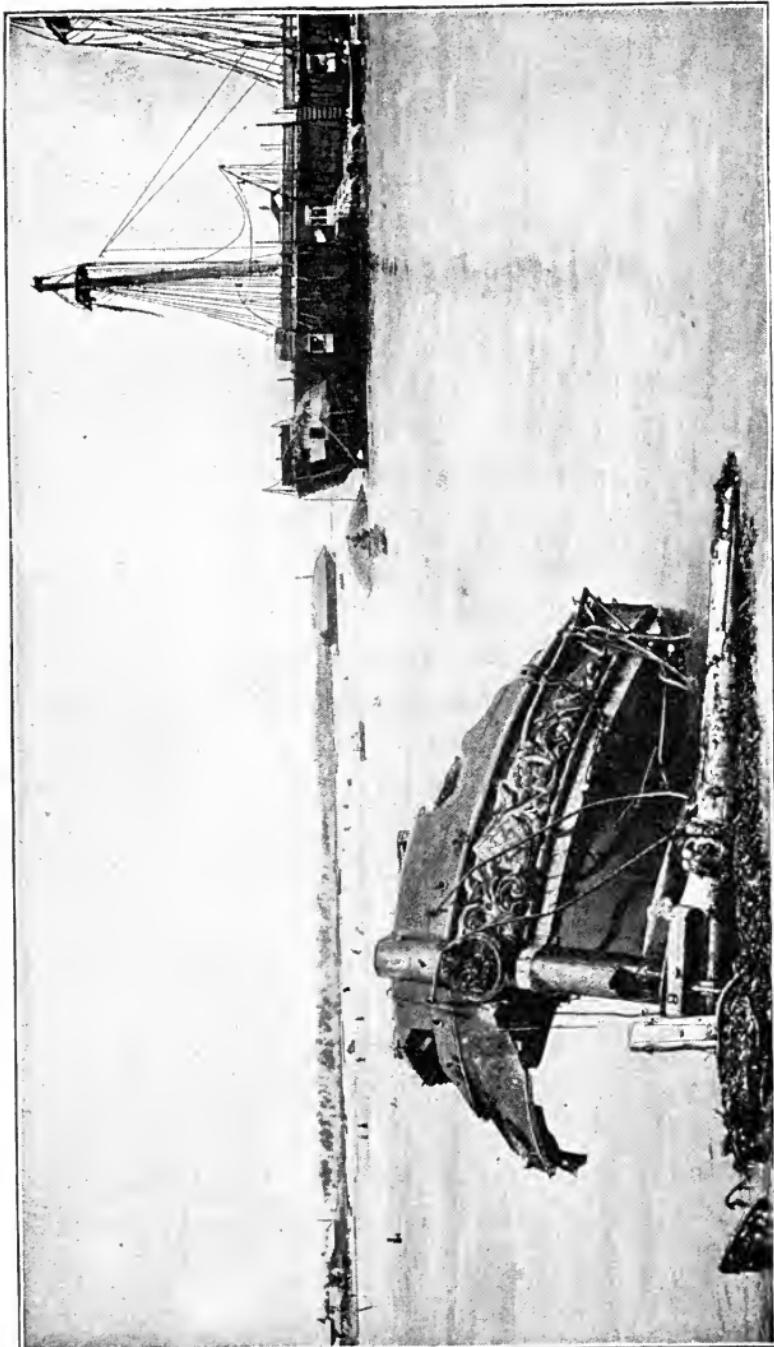
theater in Baltimore, the singer waving a flag as she sang. The audience were wild with enthusiasm. In a very short



THE ORIGINAL "STAR-SPANGLED BANNER"

The flag of Fort McHenry, which Key saw "by the dawn's early light." It will be noticed that this flag has fifteen stripes. The original plan was to add one stripe, as well as one star, with each new state. But in 1818 it was seen that this would some day make the flag an absurdity, so the number of stripes was fixed at the original thirteen.

time the new song went all over the republic, and is now known and loved by all Americans. It is called "The Star-Spangled Banner."



THE WRECKS AT SAMOA

This shows the harbor of Apia after the great storm. At the right is the shattered *Trenton*. In the foreground is a part of the German gunboat, the *Eber*, and in the distance is another, the *Adler*, lying overturned on the reef.

The Star-Spangled Banner*

O SAY, can you see, by the dawn's early light,
What so proudly we hailed at the twilight's last gleaming—
Whose broad stripes and bright stars, through the clouds of the
fight
O'er the ramparts we watched were so gallantly streaming !
And the rocket's red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there .
O ! say, does the star-spangled banner yet wave
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave ?

On that shore dimly seen through the mists of the deep
Where the foe's haughty host in dread silence reposes,
What is that which the breeze, o'er the towering steep,
As it fitfully blows, now conceals, now discloses ?
Now it catches the gleam of the morning's first beam,
In full glory reflected now shines on the stream ;
'Tis the star-spangled banner ; O long may it wave
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave !

And where is that band who so vauntingly swore
That the havoc of war and the battle's confusion
A home and a country should leave us no more ?
Their blood has washed out their foul footsteps' pollution.
No refuge could save the hireling and slave
From the terror of flight, or the gloom of the grave ;
And the star-spangled banner in triumph doth wave
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave.

* The song is taken as it appears in Stedman and Hutchinson's *Library of American Literature*, vol. iv., p. 419. The text, slightly different from the common one, corresponds to the facsimile of a copy made by Mr. Key in 1840.

O ! thus be it ever, when freemen shall stand
Between their loved homes and war's desolation !
Blest with victory and peace, may the heav'n rescued land
Praise the power that hath made and preserved us a nation.
Then conquer we must, when our cause it is just,
And this be our motto—“ *In God is our trust* ” :
And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
O'er the land of the free, and the home of the brave.

13. The Storm at Samoa.—In the spring of 1889 there was trouble at the island of Samoa, in the South Pacific, and warships were sent there by Germany, Great Britain, and the United States. These vessels lay at anchor in the harbor of Apia. The harbor is a small semi-circular bay, with shoal water extending far from the shore and a coral reef running nearly across the entrance. A narrow break in the reef allows ships to enter the bay. One day in March a heavy storm came up. So fierce was the wind and so tremendous the waves that the vessels dragged their anchors, and one after another four warships and ten other craft were driven on shore and wrecked. Nearly a hundred fifty of the seamen lost their lives. In the fury of the hurricane the captain of the British ship *Calliope* decided to leave the harbor and force his way out to sea, as the only means of safety from shipwreck. All steam was put on, and inch by inch the gallant ship fought its way in the teeth of the howling wind and the crashing waves. “ This manœuver of the British ship is regarded as one of the most daring in naval annals. It was the one desperate chance offered her commander to save his vessel and the three hundred lives aboard. An

accident to the machinery at this critical moment would have meant certain death to all. To clear the harbor the *Calliope* had to pass between the *Trenton* (the American flagship) and the reef, and it required the most skilful seamanship to avoid collision with the *Trenton*, on the one hand, or total destruction upon the reef, on the other. The *Trenton*'s fires had gone out by that time, and she lay helpless almost in the path of the *Calliope*. The doom of the American flagship seemed but a question of a few hours. Nearly every man aboard felt that his vessel must soon be dashed to pieces, and that he would find a grave under the coral reef. The decks of the flagship were swarming with men, but, facing death as they were, they recognized the heroic struggle of the British ship, and as the latter passed within a few yards of them a great shout went up from over four hundred men aboard the *Trenton*. 'Three cheers for the *Calliope*!' was the sound that reached the ears of the British tars as they passed out of the harbor in the teeth of the storm; and the heart of every Englishman went out to the brave American sailors who gave that parting tribute to the Queen's ship. The English sailors returned the *Trenton*'s cheer, and the *Calliope* passed safely out to sea, returning when the storm had abated. Captain Kane, her commander, in speaking of the incident, afterward said: 'Those ringing cheers of the American flagship pierced deep into my heart, and I shall ever remember that mighty outburst of fellow-feeling which, I felt, came from the bottom of the hearts of the gallant admiral and his men. Every man on board the *Calliope* felt as I did; it made us work to win. I can only

say, 'God bless America and her noble sailors !'"* They were thrilled with admiration for the dauntless courage of the brave British seamen on the *Calliope*; and in their own extremity they showed equal courage. Twice England has been our enemy in war. But, after all, in peace we cannot forget that Englishmen and Americans are of one blood. Late in the day, when ship after ship had been dashed to destruction, and the *Trenton*, shattered and helpless, seemed drifting to certain wreck, the anxious people on the beach heard music amid the roar of the hurricane. It was the band of the *Trenton* playing "The Star-Spangled Banner." The gallant sailors were facing death with the national music in their ears and its ringing words in their thoughts. It carried their minds back to the homeland which they loved and for which they were ready to die.

14. Another Poem About the Flag.—Joseph Rodman Drake was a young American poet of great promise. His early death (he died in 1820, at the age of twenty-five) came before he had fully shown his rare powers. When he was only seven years old he had much literary knowledge, and at fourteen he had already written poetry of good quality. His principal poems were "The Culprit Fay" and the stirring stanzas on "The American Flag."

* From the account in *St. Nicholas*, February, 1890, by Mr. John P. Dunning.

The American Flag

JOSEPH RODMAN DRAKE

WHEN Freedom from her mountain height

Unfurled her standard to the air,

She tore the azure robe of night,

And set the stars of glory there.

She mingled with its gorgeous dyes

The milky baldric of the skies,

And striped its pure celestial white

With streakings of the morning light ;

Then from his mansion in the sun

She called her eagle bearer down,

And gave into his mighty hand

The symbol of her chosen land.

Majestic monarch of the cloud,

Who rear'st aloft thy regal form,

To hear the tempest trumpings loud

And see the lightning lances driven,

When strive the warriors of the storm,

And rolls the thunder-drum of Heaven,—

Child of the Sun ! to thee 'tis given

To guard the banner of the free,

To hover in the sulphur smoke,

To ward away the battle-stroke,

And bid its blendings shine afar,

Like rainbows on the cloud of war,

The harbingers of victory !

Flag of the brave ! thy folds shall fly,

The sign of hope and triumph high,

When speaks the signal trumpet tone,

And the long line comes gleaming on.

Ere yet the life-blood, warm and wet,
Has dimmed the glistening bayonet,—
Each soldier eye shall brightly turn
To where thy sky-born glories burn ;
And, as his springing steps advance,
Catch war and vengeance from the glance.
And, when the cannon-mouthing loud
Heave in wild wreaths the battle shroud,
And gory sabres rise and fall
Like shoots of flame on midnight's pall,
Then shall thy meteor glances glow,

And cowering foes shall shrink beneath
Each gallant arm that strikes below
That lovely messenger of death.

Flag of the seas ! on ocean wave
Thy stars shall glitter o'er the brave ;
When Death, careering on the gale,
Sweeps darkly round the bellied sail,
And frightened waves rush wildly back
Before the broadside's reeling rack,
Each dying wanderer of the sea
Shall look at once to Heaven and thee,
And smile to see thy splendors fly
In triumph, o'er his closing eye.

Flag of the free heart's hope and home !
By angel hands to Valor given !
Thy stars have lit the welkin dome,
And all thy hues were born in Heaven.
Forever float that standard sheet !
Where breathes the foe but falls before us,
With Freedom's soil beneath our feet,
And Freedom's banner streaming o'er us ?

15. Judge Hopkinson's Patriotic Song.—Joseph Hopkinson (born 1770, died 1842) was a native of Philadelphia. His father was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. Joseph was educated at the University of Pennsylvania, became a lawyer, was a representative in congress, and a judge of the federal courts. He wrote "Hail, Columbia!" in 1798, when there was danger of a war with France. The popular excitement at that time was very great. The young navy was sent to sea to guard our merchant ships, and preparations were made for the organization of an army. Washington was called from his retirement at Mt. Vernon and given command of this army. John Adams was president. The music, then called the "President's March," was played in the theaters and by bands on the streets as a popular patriotic tune. Young Mr. Hopkinson was asked to write a song for the music, which might be sung at the benefit of a well-known actor. The song was "Hail, Columbia!" and was received by the audience with the wildest enthusiasm. In a very few days it was sung from Maine to Georgia.

Hail, Columbia !

JOSEPH HOPKINSON

HAIL, Columbia ! happy land !
Hail, ye heroes ! heaven-born band !
Who fought and bled in Freedom's cause,
Who fought and bled in Freedom's cause,
And when the storm of war was gone
Enjoyed the peace your valor won.

Let independence be our boast,
Ever mindful what it cost ;
Ever grateful for the prize,
Let its altar reach the skies.

Firm, united, let us be,
Rallying round our Liberty ;
As a band of brothers joined,
Peace and safety we shall find.

Immortal patriots ! rise once more :
Defend your rights, defend your shore :
Let no rude foe with impious hand,
Let no rude foe with impious hand,
In invade the shrine where sacred lies
Of toil and blood the well-earned prize.
While offering peace sincere and just,
In Heaven we place a manly trust,
That truth and justice will prevail,
And every scheme of bondage fail.

Firm, united, etc.

Sound, sound, the trump of Fame !
Let WASHINGTON's great name
Ring through the world with loud applause,
Ring through the world with loud applause ;
Let every clime to Freedom dear,
Listen with a joyful ear.
With equal skill and godlike power,
He governed in the fearful hour
Of horrid war ; or guides, with ease,
The happier times of honest peace.

Firm, united, etc.

Behold the chief who now commands,
Once more to serve his country, stands—
The rock on which the storm will beat ;
The rock on which the storm will beat,
But, armed in virtue firm and true,
His hopes are fixed on Heaven and you.
When hope was sinking in dismay,
And glooms obscured Columbia's day,
His steady mind from changes free,
Resolved on death or liberty.

Firm, united, let us be,
Rallying round our Liberty ;
As a band of brothers joined,
Peace and safety we shall find.



CHAPTER II

The Republic

1. What We Mean by a Republic.—One of the things which we Americans like about our country is that it has a republican form of government. All the independent nations in North or South America, like Mexico, Chili, and Brazil, for instance, are republics. In Europe, however, only France and Switzerland are republics. All the other countries are monarchies.

2. In a republic all the public officers either are chosen by the people or are appointed by somebody who is chosen by the people ; and all the laws are made by a body of men who are chosen by the people. If the people do not like the laws which are made, they have only to choose a new body of lawmakers. And if the public officers do not do their duty as the people want it done, it is easy to make a change there, too. So you see that in a republic the people really govern themselves.

3. Kings and Emperors.—In a monarchy it is different. At the head of the government is a monarch, called usually king, or emperor. He is not chosen by the people, but holds his place merely because his father was king or emperor before him. Neither can the people, if they do not like him, select some one else to take his place. He remains in his office as long as he lives, and when he dies his son, or, in some countries, his daughter, if there is no son, becomes monarch in his place.

4. How Russia is Governed.—Russia is a good example of a pure monarchy. The monarch is called the *tsar*, which means *emperor*. When a tsar dies his oldest son, or, if he has no son, his oldest brother, at once succeeds to the throne, and holds it in turn as long as *he* lives. So the people have no voice in deciding who shall be their monarch.

5. All the laws are made by the tsar. Of course he has men whose duty it is to advise what the law shall be. But the tsar selects these men, and he does not have to be guided by their advice. So in reality he makes the laws, and the people have nothing to say about it.

6. Again, all the public officers are either appointed by the tsar or by some one who *is* appointed by the tsar. So the people have no choice of rulers at all.

7. In short, the tsar governs Russia quite as he pleases. If he decides on war, it makes no difference what the people want. The armies and the fleets obey the tsar's orders ; the taxes are laid and collected at his will. War and peace are at the tsar's pleasure.

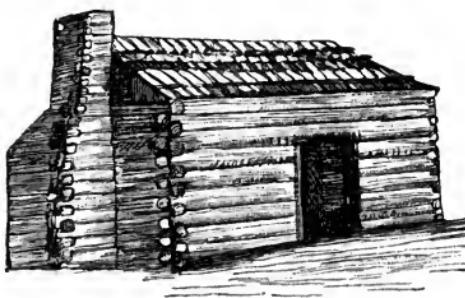
8. A ruler who has so much power as this is called an *absolute* monarch. There are not many such among civilized nations. In nearly every country in Europe except Russia the people have some power in the government. But nearly all of them have a monarch, who rules for life, and is succeeded on his death by his son.

9. An Aristocracy.—Most monarchies also have an *aristocracy*. By this we mean a body of men who have some privileges, especially political, which other men do not have. For instance, in England the laws are made by a body of men called *parliament*. Part of this body are

chosen by the people, just as is the case in a republic. But the other part, called the *house of lords*, consists of men the most of whom have the right to be members of parliament merely because their fathers did before them. When a lord dies his oldest son at once takes his place, just as in case of the Russian tsar.

10. There was a time when the members of an aristocracy had many other privileges. But in most countries these have passed away. Still, in nations which have monarchs and aristocracies it is easy to see that the people cannot govern themselves as they do in a republic.

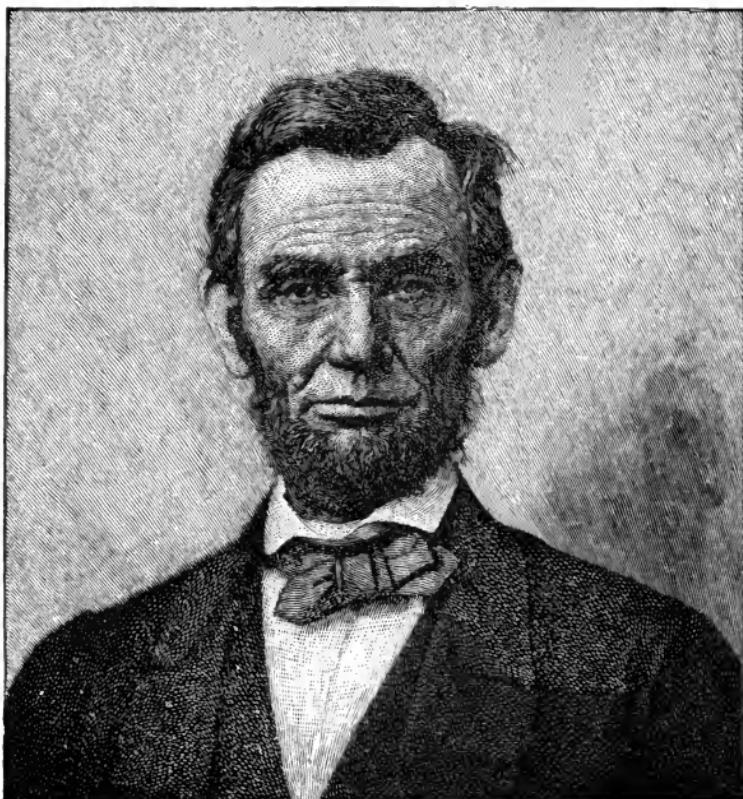
11. No Inherited Rank in a Republic.—We have in our country no monarch and no hereditary lawmakers. It seems to us very droll that any man should hold a public office merely because his father did. We know that very often a son does not inherit his father's tastes or brains or good character. And we do not see why there should be a hereditary monarch or lord of parliament, any more than hereditary grocers or teachers or farmers. Indeed it is not many centuries since nearly all occupations were inherited in just that way. But people have learned that a shoemaker's son may be a very poor shoemaker, and that if he would rather be a tailor it is better not to interfere with him. And, anyway, we prefer to choose our own public officers, rather than have them selected for us by the accident of



LOG HUT WHERE LINCOLN WAS BORN

birth. And we prefer to make our own laws, rather than to have them made for us by somebody we have not selected for that purpose.

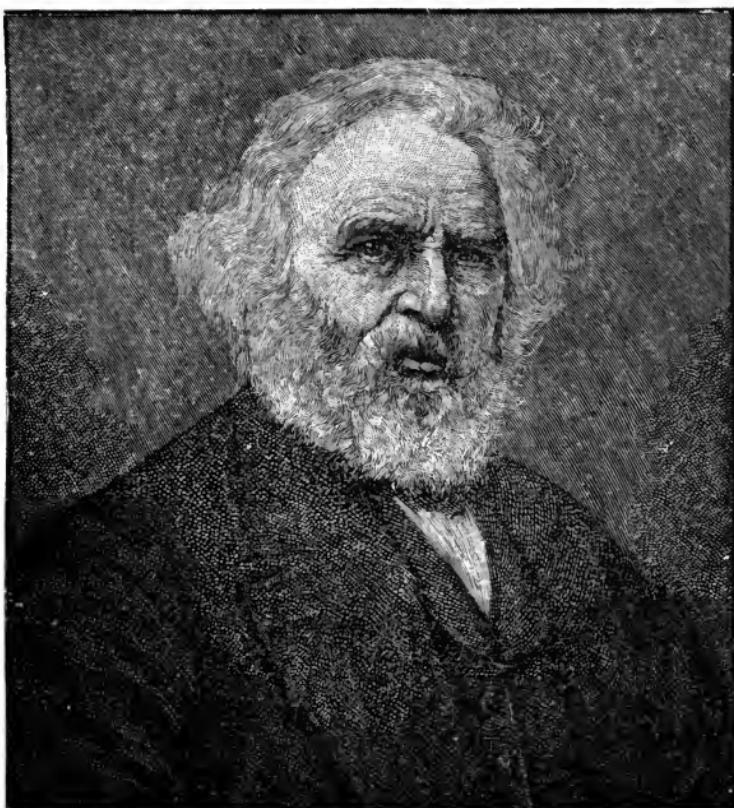
12. How Success May be Won in a Republic.—In a republic it is quite possible for a very poor boy, if he has



ABRAHAM LINCOLN

brains and perseverance enough, to rise to the highest rank. One of our greatest presidents was Abraham Lincoln. His father was a poor man, and Abraham as a boy lived in a log house on an Illinois farm, and did every day the roughest and hardest work. Books and schooling were not easy to get. But he was determined to learn all he

could. So after a hard day's work he would spend his evening hours reading and studying by the light of pine knots burning on the hearth. On one occasion he borrowed an important book, and became so anxious to own it that he copied it word for word with pen and ink.



HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW

After long years of patient toil he had learned enough to become a lawyer. In this profession he kept on with his habits of tireless industry, always learning more, always becoming more thoughtful and clear-sighted. Gradually he became a great political leader, and finally was elected president of the United States. In this office he showed

rare wisdom at a time of the utmost public difficulty and danger. There was a bloody civil war, and it seemed that the republic would fall to pieces. But it was saved. And his name will live as long as history tells the story of our republic. Thus the poor lad who hoed corn and split rails for a scanty living, became the head of a great nation. That could hardly happen in a monarchy. But many of our great men—statesmen, generals, orators—have had quite such a record as Lincoln's. In a republic there is a chance for every one.

13. An American Poet's Apostrophe.—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow was one of the greatest American poets. He was born in Maine in 1807, and died in 1882. He was graduated at Bowdoin College, in his native state, in 1825, and afterwards held a professorship in his *alma mater*. From that post he was called to a professorship in Harvard University. There he continued about twenty years, resigning to give his whole time to writing. In his long life he wrote many poems. The few lines following are from “The Building of the Ship.”

The Republic

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW

THOU, too, sail on, O Ship of State !
Sail on, O Union, strong and great !
Humanity, with all its fears,
With all the hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate !
We know what master laid thy keel,
What workmen wrought thy ribs of steel,

Who made each mast, and sail, and rope,
What anvils rang, what hammers beat,
In what a forge, and what a heat,
Were shaped the anchors of thy hope !

Fear not each sudden sound and shock ;
'Tis of the wave, and not the rock ;
'Tis but the flapping of the sail,
And not a rent made by the gale !
In spite of rock and tempest's roar,
In spite of false lights on the shore,
Sail on, nor fear to breast the sea !
Our hearts, our hopes, are all with thee ;
Our hearts, our hopes, our prayers, our tears,
Our faith triumphant o'er our fears,
Are all with thee,—are all with thee !

CHAPTER III

Laws and Their Makers

1. What We Mean by Laws.—People are often confused when they talk about *law*, because they mean very different things. But there is no difficulty if only we are quite sure what we mean.

For instance, we speak of the “law” of gravitation. This merely means that material bodies attract one another; that a stone tossed in the air will fall towards the ground—as boys say, “What goes up must come down”—and that we know how to calculate the speed of such a falling body. But we see at once that this is a law which men did not *make*—they have *discovered* it. It is what is known as a *law of nature*.

2. When a gentleman meets a lady on the street, if he is acquainted with her he lifts his hat as a sign of respect. He wants to be polite, and he wants her to know that he understands what politeness requires. This rule of lifting the hat to a lady is one of the common laws of politeness. There are many such laws. It would be hard to say who made them, but they are obeyed by common consent. They are rules for action which people heed, and so are very properly called *laws*. But we see at once how different they are from the laws of nature. The law of gravitation is merely the regular way in which we see that bodies

of matter are drawn towards one another. But the stone thrown in the air cannot help falling towards the ground. Indeed it has no choice. On the other hand, a man can be impolite if he wishes. Many people are very rude in their conduct. We say then that they are breaking the laws of politeness. But no one ever heard of a stone "breaking" the law of gravitation.

3. If a burglar is caught stealing, a policeman will soon march him to the police station. Presently the prisoner finds himself before a judge and jury. The facts are proved to the satisfaction of the jury, and the judge then sentences him to prison. This, the judge says, is according to "law"—a law which explains what is meant by burglary and which fixes a penalty for the burglar. It is the duty of the policeman and of the court to enforce the law by arresting and punishing the criminal. We see at once that such laws as these are made and enforced in order to protect people in the enjoyment of their own property. If it were not for the courts and the policemen, thieves would do about as they pleased. Everybody would have to watch day and night to keep his things from being stolen.

4. Now, of these various kinds of law, the only one which we shall talk about is the third—the kind of law which it is the duty of a judge and jury, a court, to enforce. When we speak of *the laws of a country*, of *law-makers*, of *lawyers*, we refer to law of this kind.

5. **Who Make the Laws?**—Every country has a set of laws of its own. Some of these explain what acts are forbidden, and how such acts are to be prevented, or, if done,

how they shall be punished. Acts which the law forbids are called *crimes*, and laws which relate to them are called *criminal* laws—just as people who disobey these laws are called *criminals*. Then, there are other laws which regulate business affairs, providing ways for collecting debts, for making a record of the sale of land, and the like. And still other laws determine what public officers, like policemen and judges, there shall be, and what shall be their powers and duties.

6. Now, all these laws have to be made by somebody, and it is very important that we should understand just who it is that has the right to make rules which everybody is bound to obey. The rules of a school are made by the teacher. But they are intended only for the boys and girls in the school. The laws of the United States should be obeyed by every man, woman, and child in the land.

7. In Russia the laws are made by the tsar. To be sure, as we said before, he has a body of men to advise him what laws to make. But he is not bound to take their advice, and, in any case, what they suggest is not law unless the tsar makes it so. He is the law-maker. This is putting a vast responsibility on a single man—a responsibility which he is very apt to lessen by usually taking the advice of his courtiers. But the government of Russia is an absolute monarchy.

8. There are some countries in which all the grown men come together in a mass meeting to decide what the laws shall be. This is done in a few of the cantons of the Swiss republic. It is done in the towns of some of our States, the town meeting, of course, not making all the laws, but

merely their own local town laws. This sort of law-making is just the opposite of an absolute monarchy, and is called a pure democracy. It works very well where there are not many people, and where the country is not too large.

9. In a republic the laws are usually made by a body of men selected for that purpose by the people. This body of men is called a *legislature*. Its members are generally elected for a few years only, so that if they do not please the people others can be chosen in their place. In a large country it is not convenient for all the people to come together to make laws. So the next best thing is for the people to choose a small number of men who shall carry out the popular will.

10. In a country which is a monarchy, but in which the monarch has not the absolute power, as he has in Russia, the legislature commonly consists partly of men elected by the people, partly of the aristocrats, and partly of the monarch himself. But as the monarch and the aristocrats hold their place without regard to the popular will, it is clear that in such a country the people cannot always get such laws made as they want. However, on the other hand, the monarch and the aristocrats cannot make such laws as they want unless the representatives of the people consent.

11. Why Laws are Necessary.—Without laws we could not live in any sort of comfort. In every community there are some people so selfish and vicious that they are always ready to injure others if they can. They are perfectly willing to steal, to destroy what they do not want, to injure or even to kill any one who arouses their

anger. Even in countries where the laws are strict and well enforced there are such criminals. We often read in the newspapers of burglaries and arson and even of murder. But if there were no laws, no courts, and no police, we may be very sure that stealing and violence would be greatly multiplied. Everybody would have to protect himself as well as he could. But no one could do this so well as is now done by the law. So that if we should be even for a short time without the protection of the law and government, everybody except criminals would be very glad to see it restored.

12. Of course, people who are in the habit of breaking the law, hoping that they may not be caught, would be very glad if there were no laws and no police. As the old rhyme runs :

“No man e'er felt the halter draw,
With good opinion of the law.”

But people who are not thieves have a very different opinion.

13. This is reason enough for having laws and officers to enforce them. There are many other reasons also, which need not be explained here. We often hear of “uncivilized” countries, and we call ours highly civilized. One of the most important differences between the two is that civilized countries are under a good system of laws, and that in them life and property are safe. If one should go to an uncivilized country, like some lands in Africa, he would have to be ready to defend both his life and his property with deadly weapons. He would be likely to

carry a rifle and revolvers wherever he should go. But a merchant in an American city or village does not have to carry these weapons. That is because our country is a land of law, and Africa is not.

14. John C. Calhoun.—John Caldwell Calhoun was a great statesman of South Carolina. He was born in that state in 1782, and died in the city of Washington in 1850. For forty years he was active in public life, as representative in congress, senator, secretary of war, secretary of state, and vice-president of the United States. He was one of the great orators of the senate when that body was distinguished for its ability. Calhoun, Clay, and Webster were its intellectual giants. The following extract is from one of his speeches :

The Necessity of Government

Society can no more exist without government, in some form or other, than man without society. The political, then, is man's natural state. It is the one for which his Creator formed him, into which he is impelled irresistibly, and the only one in which his race can exist and all his faculties be fully developed.

It follows that even the worst form of government is better than anarchy ; and that individual liberty or freedom must be subordinate to whatever power may be necessary to protect society against anarchy within or destruction without.

Just in proportion as a people are ignorant, stupid, debased, corrupt, exposed to violence within and dangers without, the power necessary for government to possess, in order to preserve society against anarchy and destruction, becomes greater and greater, and individual liberty less and less, until the lowest condition is reached, when absolute and despotic power

becomes necessary on the part of the government, and individual liberty becomes extinct.

So, on the contrary, just as a people rise in the scale of intelligence, virtue, and patriotism, and the more perfectly they become acquainted with the nature of government, the ends for which it was ordered, and how it ought to be administered, the power necessary for government becomes less and less, and individual liberty greater and greater.

CHAPTER IV

What We Mean by Government

1. Law and Government.—We have seen that a community could not be peaceful and orderly unless there were law to regulate conduct. But we have also seen that in a large community all the people cannot come together to decide what the laws shall be, and it becomes necessary for a small body of men to be selected as a legislature. Then, when the laws are made, it is also necessary to see that they are obeyed. For this purpose the people select other men, like the policemen in cities and the constables in villages. However, it is not always exactly plain just what the law means in every case, nor is it always sure that a man whom the police may arrest on the charge of committing some crime is really guilty. So the people select other men whose duty it is to decide what the laws mean and whether accused people are actually guilty. These men are usually called *judges*. And the whole body of men selected for these three kinds of duties, making laws, seeing that the laws are obeyed, and deciding what the laws mean, are called *the government*.

2. The Two Houses of the Legislature.—Making laws requires very much care, knowledge, and good judgment. The men selected for that purpose ought to be very intelligent and very honest. But, even then mistakes may

be made. In order that these mistakes may be as few as possible, nearly all legislatures are divided into two separate bodies, usually called *houses*. One is commonly called the *upper house* and the other the *lower house*.

3. *House* is certainly an odd name to give to a body of men. But if we remember that the word is used in this meaning, as well as applying to a building, we shall have no trouble.

4. **The Number in Each House.**—The number of men in the two houses differs in different countries. In the upper house of the British legislature there are nearly 600 members and in the lower house nearly 700. In our American national legislature we have only 90 in the upper house and 357 in the lower house.

5. **How Laws are Made.**—If any member of the legislature thinks that there ought to be a law of a certain kind, he writes it out and proposes it at a meeting of the house to which he belongs. In this form it is called a *bill*. This bill is then usually sent to a *committee*—a small group of members who talk the bill over and report their opinion of it to the house. Then it is talked over in the house, all the arguments for it and against it being pretty apt to be thought of by somebody. This talk is called a *debate*. After the bill has been thoroughly examined and debated, the house take a vote, all members who favor the bill voting *aye*, and those opposed to it voting *no*. If there are more ayes than noes the bill is said to have *passed* that house. Then it goes to the other house, where again it is proposed, debated, and voted upon. But unless it passes this house also, the bill cannot become a law.

6. It is easy now to see the advantage of having two houses in a legislature. As every bill has to be debated and voted on by two different sets of men, it can seldom be passed through both bodies in too great a hurry for some one to find out its faults. So we are much less likely to get careless and bad laws than if the legislature had only one house.

7. The Administration.—We have said that after a law is made it is necessary to have a number of public officers whose duty is to see that it is obeyed.

8. In a republic the highest of these officers we usually call the *president*. The president of the United States has under his authority a very large number of other officers, all of whom are busy in carrying out the laws made by the national legislature. These officers, from the president down, are called the *administration*, or the *administrative officers*. The president is the head of the administration. In a monarchy the head of the administration is usually called a king, or an emperor.

9. How the President Shares in Making Laws.—In our republic the president is not merely the head of the administration. He also has something to do with making laws.

10. As he sees how all the laws work and so can easily learn what is needed, it is his duty to advise the legislature from time to time what laws he thinks ought to be made.

11. Then, when a bill has been voted by both houses, before it can become a law it is sent to the President. If he approves it, the bill at once becomes a law. But if he

thinks it ought not to be a law, he sends it back to the legislature with his objections. This is called a *veto* of the bill. Then the bill has to be debated and voted on all over again. And it cannot be a law unless two-thirds of both houses vote for it.

12. The Courts.—In every well-governed country some men are selected to decide what the law means. These men are called *judges*. But, besides the judges we have another set of men selected every time a man is accused of breaking the law, or when two men dispute about property and cannot settle their disagreement themselves. This other set of men is called a *jury*, and their duty is to decide on the *facts* in dispute. That is, they decide whether the accused person really has broken the law, or, in case of a dispute between two men, the jury decides what actually happened. Then the judge explains the law. The judge and jury together form what is called a *court*. Sometimes there are no facts in dispute. Then the jury is omitted, and the judge alone is still called a *court*. And in some courts there are several judges instead of one. The method in which a court proceeds is pointed out in Chapter XIII (p. 180).

13. The Government.—Thus we see that there are three sets of officers busy in managing public affairs. And, as we said before, these three sets, taken together, form the *government*. A country which has a good government has good laws and good men to do the public business. A country which has a bad government has bad laws, or bad men as officers, or both.

14. The government of our republic is made by the

people. All its officers are either chosen by the people or are appointed by others who are thus chosen.

15. That being the case, we see at once how important it is that everybody should understand what sort of laws we have and what officers are selected to attend to the public business. It is a common saying that "What is everybody's business is nobody's business." That ought not to be true in our republic, for with us it certainly is everybody's business to see to it that we have a good government. But nobody can do his share if he is ignorant. Ignorance may do in a monarchy. It has no place in a republic.

CHAPTER V

How the People of Europe Found America and Came to Live in It

I. Columbus.—Christopher Columbus was an Italian who lived some four hundred years ago, and who had what seemed to many people of his time a very queer notion. He believed that the earth was round, and that he could



COLUMBUS EMBARKING AT PALOS, SPAIN, FOR HIS VOYAGE OF DISCOVERY, 1492

prove it by sailing around it. The common idea at that time was that the world was flat ; and even those intelligent men who did not think so were not at all sure that it would be safe or possible to make the voyage. But Columbus was determined to try, and at last succeeded in

persuading the King and Queen of Spain to let him have three small vessels for the experiment. With these the daring Italian boldly steered west across the Atlantic.

2. What Columbus Wanted.—It was not merely the shape of the earth which was in question. From the eastern part of Asia, known as *India*, very valuable articles came to Europe—silks and spices and precious stones. But the overland route across Asia was slow and expensive and infested with robbers. So if a direct water route could be found from Europe to India and China it would be a great thing for the European countries. Columbus knew nothing about the American continent, and thought that by sailing west he would come right to the Indian coast. Therefore when, on an October day in 1492, after sailing for many days, he found a number of islands, he at once thought them a part of India. The red men who came wondering to the beach to see the strange vessels and their yet more strange pale-faced crews, Columbus called Indians. And the islands which he found are called the West Indies to this day.

3. Excitement in Europe.—This discovery by Columbus that there was land across the ocean caused great excitement in Europe. The King of Spain claimed all the “new world,” as it was called, because it was in Spanish ships that the voyage of discovery had been made. But many eager voyagers of other nations—Portuguese, Frenchmen, Dutchmen, Englishmen—paid no attention to the Spanish claim, and sailed away to see what they, too, could find. They found many things—unknown shores, great rivers and bays. Everywhere vast forests came down

to the beach. And everywhere the native people were the red men—the “Indians.”

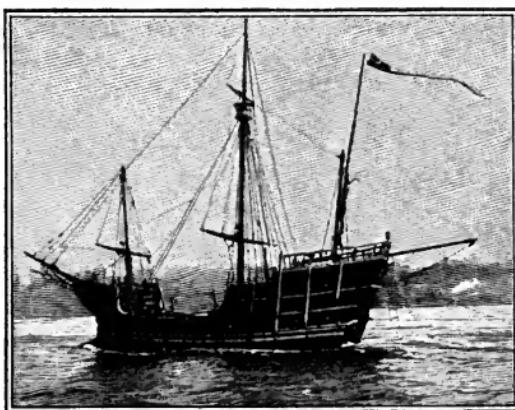
4. Europeans Come to Live in America.—When it was found that the new world was a good place for homes, many people came over from Europe and settled along the coasts. The Spaniards had the West India Islands, and Mexico, and Central America, and nearly all of South America. The Portuguese had Brazil. The French made homes in Canada, along the great lakes and at New Orleans. The Dutch settled on what they called Manhattan Island; *New Amsterdam* was the name they gave their little town. It is now New York. The English came to live in many places on the Atlantic coast from Maine to Florida. They took New Amsterdam away from the Dutch in one of their wars, and thus with that, and with Delaware, which was first settled by Swedes, the English had the thirteen colonies which afterwards broke away from under the British government and became the United States of America.

5. How the Colonists Lived.—The early settlers in the American wilderness did not have an easy time. They could not bring many comforts with them, as the voyage across the Atlantic was slow, tedious, and expensive. In those times it took several weeks to cross the ocean. A living was made usually by farming. The trees had to be cleared away, and then Indian corn and other crops were planted. There was little money to be had, and few things to buy with it. At one time dried codfish were used as money in Massachusetts. The Indians were often unfriendly, and incessant Indian wars fill the history of the

times. An Indian war was very dreadful, as the savages killed with the greatest cruelty all whom they could. They would hide in the shelter of the woods, and when the attack was least expected would rush from their hiding places, set fire to the settler's house, and murder men, women, and children as they ran screaming from the flames. The Indian, too, had a hideous habit of cutting and tearing the scalp from the head of his victim, keeping it as a bloody trophy of his success.

6. The Colonists Succeed.—But the colonists were brave and persevering, and so, in spite of poverty and hard work and sickness and war, they succeeded in building up thriving settlements. It was more than a hundred years after Columbus found the new world before the first Englishmen came to live in America, at Jamestown, in Virginia. And it was less than two hundred years after this settlement was made, that the thirteen English colonies became an independent republic.

7. Why the Colonies Were Separate.—When the people of Europe came over to America to make their homes they came in companies at different times and settled at different places. Usually each settlement had



THE PINTA

One of the tiny vessels in which Columbus crossed the Atlantic in 1492.

to have a local government of its own, as the different settlements were too far apart to be managed by one government. Then, too, the companies of settlers were often



SETTLERS ATTACKED BY INDIANS

such as wanted to have the management of their own affairs. The colonies in New England, especially Massachusetts and Connecticut, were settled by English people who were not allowed at home to worship God in the way

which they preferred. So they came to the wilderness for religious liberty. A similar purpose took the Baptists to Rhode Island, the Quakers to Pennsylvania, and the Roman Catholics to Maryland. Many of the settlers of Virginia and South Carolina were Episcopalians. It is plain enough that people of these different religious ideas would want to be free from interference. So they lived apart in their various colonies, each with its own local government, and all obeying the British government at London.

The Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers in New England

MRS. HEMANS*

“Look now abroad ! Another race has filled
These populous borders—wide the world recedes,
And towns shoot up, and fertile realms are tilled ;
The land is full of harvests and green meads.”

—Bryant.

THE breaking waves dashed high,
On a stern and rock-bound coast,
And the woods against a stormy sky
Their giant branches tossed ;

And the heavy night hung dark
The hills and waters o'er,
When a band of exiles moored their bark
On the wild New England shore.

Not as the conqueror comes,
They, the true-hearted, came,
Not with the roll of the stirring drums,
And the trumpet that sings of fame ;

* Felicia Dorothea Hemans was an English lady who died in 1835. Some of her poems are very beautiful.

Not as the flying come,
 In silence and in fear ;—
 They shook the depths of the desert gloom
 With their hymns of lofty cheer.

Amidst the storm they sang,
 And the stars heard and the sea ;
 And the sounding aisles of the dim woods rang
 To the anthem of the free !



LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS, 1620

The first English settlers north of Virginia were the "Pilgrims"—people who left their native land in order to secure liberty of religion. They landed on the coast of Massachusetts in December, 1620. Their settlement they called "Plymouth," from the port of that name in England from which they had sailed.

The ocean eagle soared
 From his nest by the white wave's foam,
 And the rocking pines of the forest roared—
 This was their welcome home !

There were men with hoary hair,
Amidst that pilgrim-band ;—
Why had *they* come to wither there
Away from their childhood's land ?

There was woman's fearless eye,
Lit by her deep love's truth ;
There was manhood's brow serenely high,
And the fiery heart of youth.

What sought they thus afar ?—
Bright jewels of the mine ?
The wealth of seas, the spoils of war ?—
They sought a faith's pure shrine !

Ay, call it holy ground,
The soil where first they trod !
They have left unstained what there they found—
Freedom to worship God !

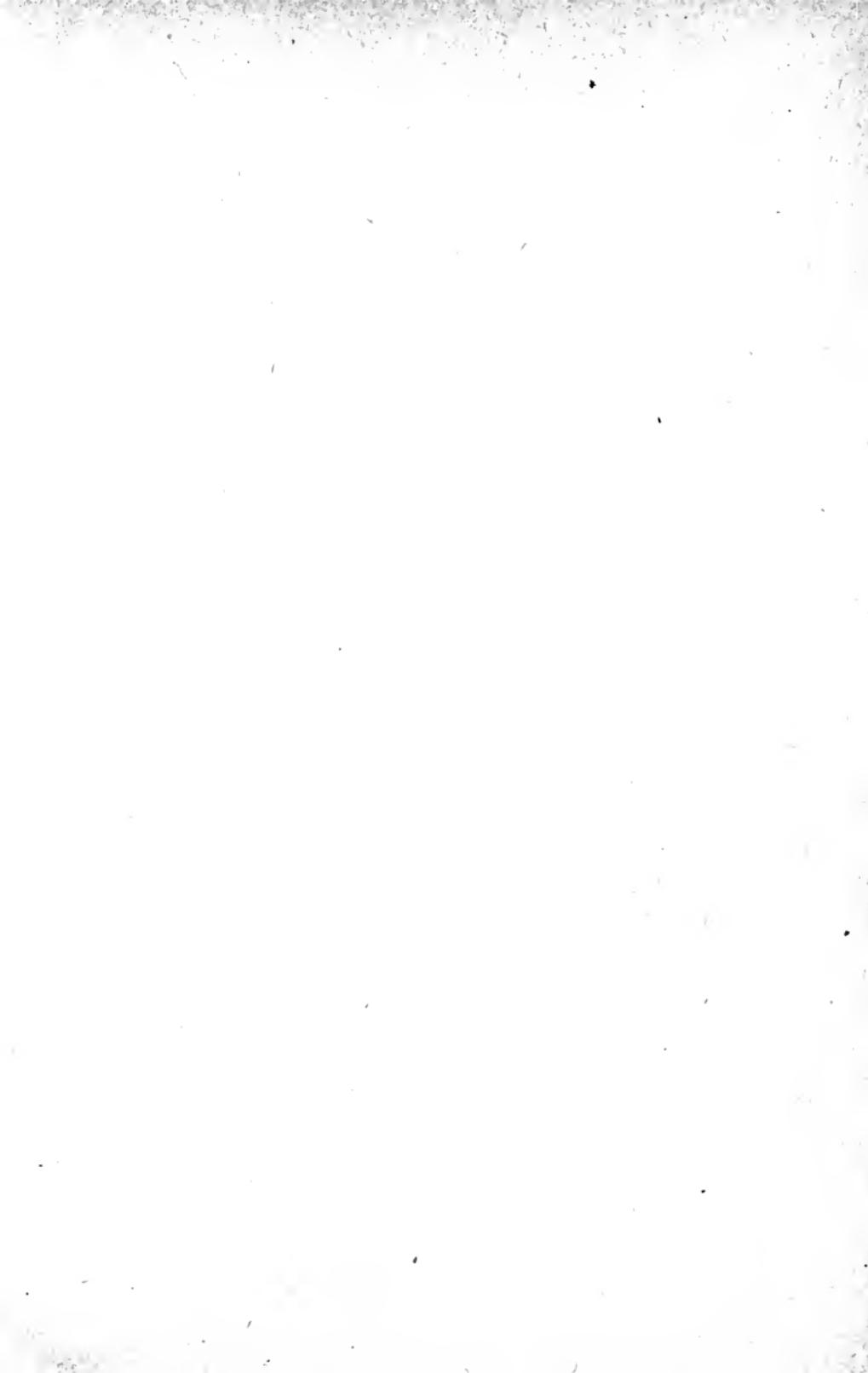
8. Why the Colonies United.—When the colonies began to oppose the acts of the British government, they had to unite. In 1765 a colonial *congress* met at New York to discuss a British law for taxing the colonies. The colonists had had no share in making this law, and therefore they thought it unjust. This congress consisted of a few delegates from each of nine colonies—four of the thirteen sent no delegates—and simply adopted resolutions expressing their reasons for opposing the law. In a short time the British government repealed the law.

9. A few years later another attempt was made to tax the colonists without their consent. This attempt was resisted

as vigorously as was the first, and in 1774 a second congress of the colonies met at Philadelphia to talk the matter over. They adopted strong resolutions against the tax laws, commended the resistance of the people to the collection of the taxes, and finally, before going home, called a third congress to meet in the following spring. Twelve of the colonies—all but Georgia—had delegates in this second congress.

10. The third congress of the colonies met at Philadelphia in May, 1775, and found that war had already begun between the colonies and the British government (p. 65). All the thirteen were now represented by their delegates. This congress was a sort of common government for the united colonies. Of course each colony kept its own government besides, but the congress managed the most important things in the war. It was this congress which made the Declaration of Independence, which chose George Washington commander of the armies, and which finally made peace with Great Britain. Since then we have always called our national legislature “congress.”

11. How the West Was Settled.—After the revolution many people thought they could do better by going farther west to live, in the wilderness which had not yet been cleared. So they went across the Alleghany Mountains and made their homes on both sides of the Ohio River. They had the same hard life as the first colonists on the Atlantic coast, living in log cabins, raising corn and hogs, and shooting wild beasts. Bears, deer, buffalo, wild turkeys, and other game were abundant in the woods, so it was easy for these skilful hunters to find food. They used





THE MAYFLOWER, 1620.



THE AMERICAN LINER ST LOUIS, 1897.

a very long rifle with a very small bullet, and were dead shots. Wilder than the bears and panthers, however, were the fierce Indians. Many of the settlers and their families were killed and scalped, and many of the Indians too were killed. So savage was the fighting in Kentucky that that state in its early days was called "the dark and bloody ground." But the Indians were gradually pushed farther west. The woods were cleared off, more and more settlers came from the east and from Europe, and so many people in the end came to live in the west that, as we have seen, a long list of states, one after another, was added to "the old thirteen." After railroads were built and steamboats were put on the rivers and lakes, the crowd of immigrants became very great. Cities have grown so fast as almost to take the breath away. Chicago has over a million of people. When the revo-



THE PURITAN COLONIST

Many of the early settlers in New England came to the new world for religious liberty. They disapproved many practices of the Church of England, which they wished to "purify." Hence they were called Puritans. The picture is from Ward's statue in Central Park, New York.

lutionary war was ended the place where the great city now stands was a swamp, inhabited mostly by wild ducks. In 1837, when the village which grew up by the lake became a city, there were 3,000 inhabitants. And so the republic has filled with people. There were only 3,000,000 in all the thirteen States at the time of the revolu-



PURITANS GOING TO CHURCH. (FROM BOUGHTON'S WELL-KNOWN PAINTING.)

tion. Now our forty-five states have nearly, if not quite, 70,000,000.

12. James Schouler.—James Schouler has written a history of the United States in five volumes, which gives an excellent picture of the growth of the republic from the formation of the Constitution to the breaking out of the civil war. The selection gives a vivid picture of an event which produced great excitement at the time, and which led to a marvelously rapid immigration to California.

The Discovery of Gold in California

JAMES SCHOULER

SOME miles above Sutter's fort, on the American fork of the Sacramento, a saw-mill was in course of erection for turning some pine forests near by into lumber. Marshall, with a gang of workmen, comprising native Indians and a few white Mormons, was engaged upon the work. While widening and deepening the channel, where water was let on to run the mill, yellow particles were brought down by night, mingled with the loose mud and gravel, which Marshall discovered as he sauntered along the tailrace in the morning. Suspecting the truth, which was confirmed by another night's sluicing, he gathered some of the glittering grains in his pouch, and rode down the stream to Captain Sutter, dismounting at the fort on the afternoon of the 28th.* Sutter weighed the ore, applied such tests of science as he could command, ransacked his little library upon the subject, and pronounced the substance gold. From that moment the news of the discovery spread, and men's minds were turned in his little kingdom from saw-mills, flour-mills, herds, flocks, and all that humbler property which hitherto had absorbed his thoughts and theirs, and, to quote Sutter's own expressive phrase,—for he could not ride luck firmly at a break-neck speed,—the curse of the discovery was on him.

Neither Sutter nor Marshall could profit by nature's confidence. They agreed to keep the secret to themselves ; and a Mexican grant being of course out of the question by that time, Sutter procured a lease of this region from the Indian natives, and then undertook the more difficult affair of procuring title from the United States. Colonel Mason, the American commandant at Monterey, could give no document ; and so far

* January 28, 1848.

from guarding their joint secret, Sutter and his unwary contractor managed to send the news far and wide, which their humble workmen on the stream had wit enough to ascertain very quickly. Sutter's saw-mill stood unfinished, as hundreds and thousands of laborers pushed by for more congenial work. Within four months of the first discovery over four thousand persons were about the Sacramento, working as if for dear life, dwelling in coarse canvas tents and huts, and coaxing fortune with the rudest implements. Some with bowls, pans, and willow baskets were seen washing out the gravel and separating the shining atoms by the hand ; others worked with the pick and shovel ; while some, the luckiest of the lot, found places where they could pick gold out of crevices in the mountain rocks with their butcher knives, as they lay upon their backs, in pieces which weighed from one to six ounces.

Fleets of launches, from the sloop to the cockleshell, left San Francisco in early May for the Sacramento saw-mill region, and the town was nearly stripped of its male population in course of the summer. Soon the whole country, from San Francisco to Los Angeles, and from the seashore to the base of the mountains, echoed the cry of "Gold, gold, gold !" The house was left half-built, the field half-planted ; women looked after the shop. Foreign vessels began to arrive ; but before they could unload, their crews deserted for the "diggings." Mexicans, scarcely less than Americans, caught the gold fever, and joined in the headlong rush for riches. And quickly as sails or steam could bear the tidings to different points of the compass, adventurers hastened from China, from the Sandwich Islands, from Australia, and from the whole Pacific coast between Vancouver's Island and Valparaiso.

CHAPTER VI

National Independence

1. The Fourth of July.—The Fourth of July is familiar to every school-boy as the national holiday. Fire-crackers and torpedoes, sky-rockets and Roman candles, the booming of cannon, the pomp of military parade, and often a public meeting which listens to patriotic songs and speeches—these are the usual ways in which the day is celebrated.

2. Why do we keep this day? Because it was on the Fourth of July, 1776, that the representatives of the American people adopted a solemn declaration that they would no longer obey the government of Great Britain, but that thereafter they would have their own government and make their own laws. This was the *Declaration of Independence*. And the Fourth of July accordingly is often called *Independence Day*.

3. What Independence Means.—If the people of one country have to obey the government of some other, then we say that the first country is *dependent* on the second. But, on the other hand, the people of any country are *independent* if they have their own government and do not have to obey any other.

4. There are many independent nations, such as France, Great Britain, Germany, Russia, Spain, in Europe; the

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, JULY 4, 1776

This is from Trumbull's painting in the rotunda of the capitol at Washington. John Hancock, the president of the congress, is seated at the table, and in front of him stand the committee who drafted the Declaration—Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert L. Livingston. See *Footnote on page 63.*



United States, Mexico, Brazil, in America, and many more. Each of these has a government of its own, makes its own laws, has its own flag, carries on its own business quite as it pleases; in short, is completely independent.

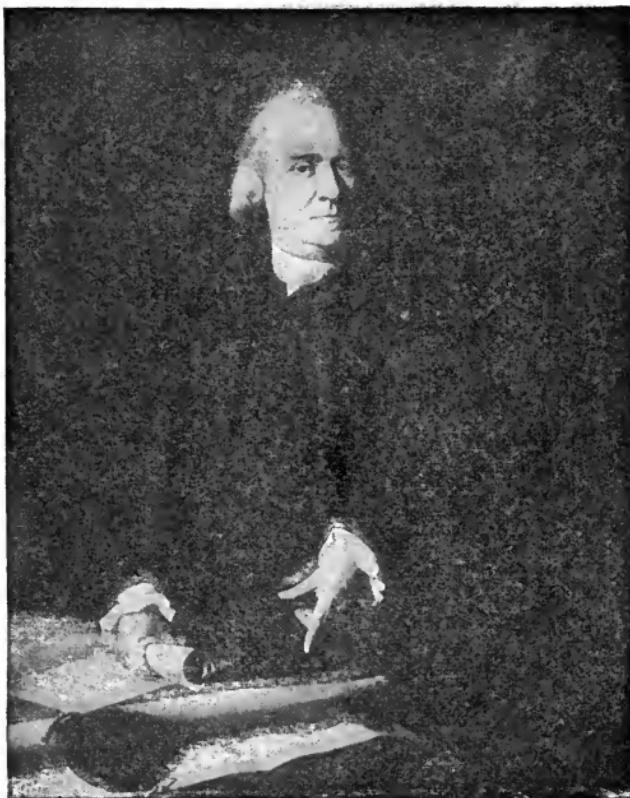
5. If you look at the map of North America, you will see just north of the United States the Dominion of Canada. Canada is not independent, like the United States, but has to obey the government of Great Britain. Therefore Canada is a British dependency. But Mexico, which lies just south of us, is independent. That was not always the case, as Mexico was once a dependency of Spain. But many years ago the Mexicans, like the Americans, declared their independence. They had to go to war with Spain to become actually independent. But they were victorious, and so the Mexicans no longer have to obey the Spanish government.

6. **How the United States Became Independent.**—It is only a little over a century since our country became an independent republic. In 1775 thirteen of our states,

AN AMERICAN HISTORICAL PAINTER.—John Trumbull was the son of Jonathan Trumbull, the revolutionary governor of Connecticut. The governor was a firm patriot and a staunch friend of Washington, who often sought his advice. It was the general's custom to address the governor as "Brother Jonathan," a term which has come into jocular use as personifying the United States. John was graduated at Harvard College in 1773 at the age of seventeen, and two years later joined the revolutionary army. He became an aid-de-camp of Washington, but before the war was ended resumed his early profession of art. After the revolution he devoted himself to painting a great series of historical pictures, for which he made elaborate studies. "The Battle of Bunker Hill" was finished soon after the war. He made portraits afterwards of the great actors in the revolutionary struggle, painting John Adams in London; Jefferson, and the French officers who were engaged in the American war, in Paris, and making several portraits of Washington. In the rotunda of the national capitol he painted four great pictures—"The Declaration of Independence," "The Surrender of Burgoyne," "The Surrender of Cornwallis," "The Resignation of General Washington." The work of these four took the artist seven years—from 1815 to 1822. The pictures are interesting as containing authentic portraits. Mr. Trumbull lived until 1843.

those along the Atlantic coast from New Hampshire to Georgia, were colonies belonging to Great Britain.

7. A colony is a settlement which people have made in a



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SAMUEL ADAMS

Samuel Adams, one of the most influential leaders of Massachusetts in the revolution, was a signer of the Declaration of Independence—a second cousin of President John Adams.

land distant from their original home, and which is ruled by the home government.

8. So these thirteen colonies were governed by the British monarchy. The most of the people in them were of British blood—English, with some Scotch and Irish. The

rest of the land now included in our republic either was a wilderness inhabited only by Indians and wild beasts, or belonged to some other European monarchy.



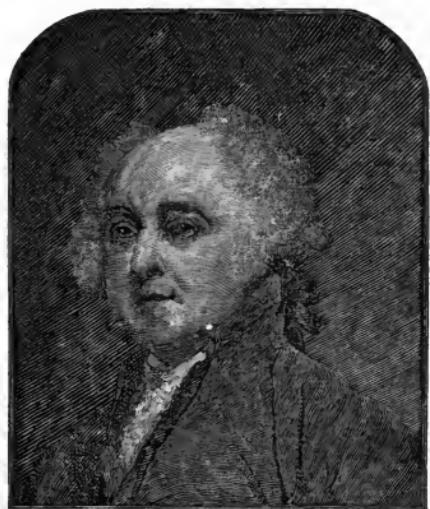
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN

Franklin was a poor boy who won his way to eminence by tireless industry and great talents. He was a trusted leader of the patriots in the revolutionary war; was a signer of the Declaration of Independence; was sent as envoy to France, where he was received with great respect, and was able to induce that nation to aid the Americans against Great Britain; and was a member of the convention which, in 1787, drew up the Constitution of the United States. Franklin died in 1790, in his eighty-fifth year.

9. But the American colonists, while quite willing to be a part of the British monarchy and to be governed by British laws, yet, after all, preferred to manage their own affairs for themselves. And when the British government

tried to make them pay taxes without their having a voice in the matter, there was trouble. The colonists refused to pay the taxes. The British sent over soldiers to compel obedience. But the colonists resisted the soldiers, and so there came to be a war between the mother country in Europe and her colonies in America. This was dragged on for eight years. By that time it was clear that the British could not conquer the colonies, and peace was made. In the second year of the war, July 4, 1776, as

we have seen, the colonists declared that they would no longer be a part of the British monarchy; but that they would thereafter be an independent nation. When the peace was made, in 1783, the British government gave up the claim to govern the colonies, and consented to their independence. Thus the thirteen colonies became an independent republic—the United States of America.



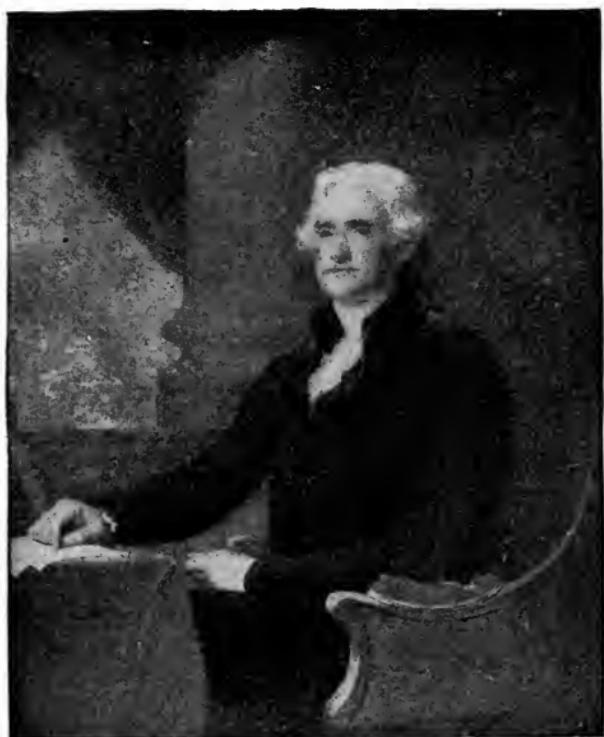
JOHN ADAMS

President of the United States, 1797-1801.

10. Adams and Jefferson.—John Adams was one of the foremost patriots of our revolutionary war. He was a member of the Continental Congress (p. 57) which adopted the Declaration of Independence in 1776, and was a member of the committee appointed to draw up that immortal document. Thomas Jefferson, another member of the committee, was the one who actually

wrote the Declaration. John Adams became president of the United States in 1797, succeeding the first president, George Washington; and in 1801 Adams in turn was succeeded by Jefferson.

Adams and Jefferson both died on the fourth of July,



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THOMAS JEFFERSON

Jefferson was the author of the Declaration of Independence, was secretary of state under Washington, vice-president under President John Adams, and was himself president from 1801 to 1809. He was one of our most original and versatile statesmen.

1826, the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration. Daniel Webster was invited to deliver a commemorative address on the lives and services of the two patriots, which he did, in Faneuil Hall, Boston, August 2, 1826.

In the course of this address Webster gave a vivid word-picture of the deliberations of the congress, and supposed Adams to have given the following speech, although it was, in fact, Webster's speech :

In Favor of a Declaration of Independence

DANIEL WEBSTER

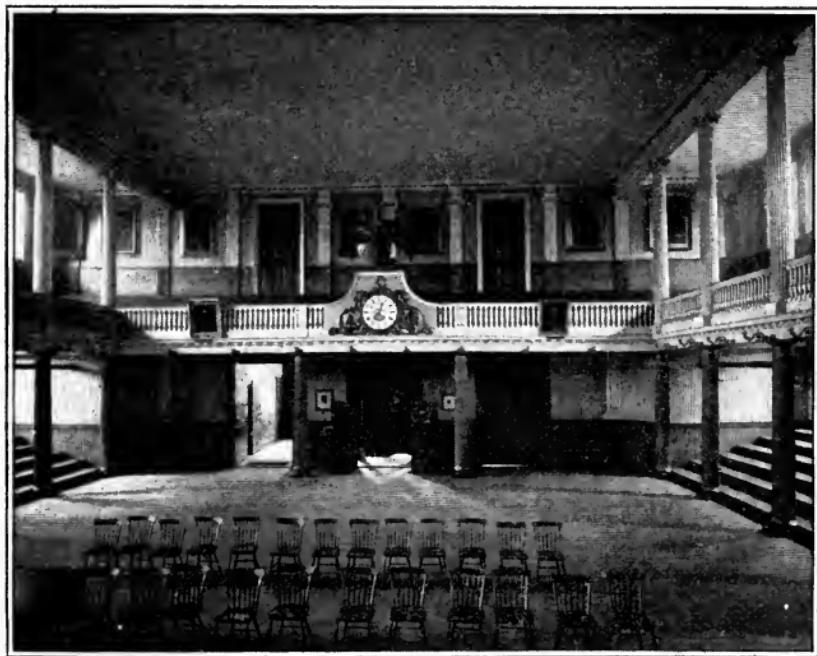
Speech supposed to have been delivered by John Adams in the Continental Congress, July 1, 1776

SINK or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my hand and my heart to this vote ! It is true, indeed, that, in the beginning, we aimed not at independence. But there is a Divinity which shapes our ends. The injustice of England has driven us to arms ; and, blinded to her own interest for our good, she has obstinately persisted, till independence is now within our grasp. We have but to reach forth to it, and it is ours. Why, then, should we defer the Declaration ? Is any man so weak as now to hope for a reconciliation with England, which shall leave either safety to the country and its liberties, or safety to his own life, and his own honor ? Are not you, Sir, who sit in that chair,—is not he, our venerable colleague near you,—are not both already the proscribed and predestined objects of punishment and of vengeance ? Cut off from all hope of royal clemency, what are you, what can you be, while the power of England remains, but outlaws ?

If we postpone independence, do we mean to carry on, or give up, the war ? Do we mean to submit to the measures of Parliament, Boston port-bill and all ? Do we mean to submit, and consent that we ourselves shall be ground to powder, and our country and its rights trodden down in the dust ? I know we do not mean to submit. We never shall submit. Do we intend

to violate that most solemn obligation ever entered into by men,—that plighting, before God, of our sacred honor to Washington, when, putting him forth to incur the dangers of war, as well as the political hazards of the times, we promised to adhere to him, in every extremity, with our fortunes and our lives?

I know there is not a man here who would not rather see a



FANEUIL HALL, BOSTON

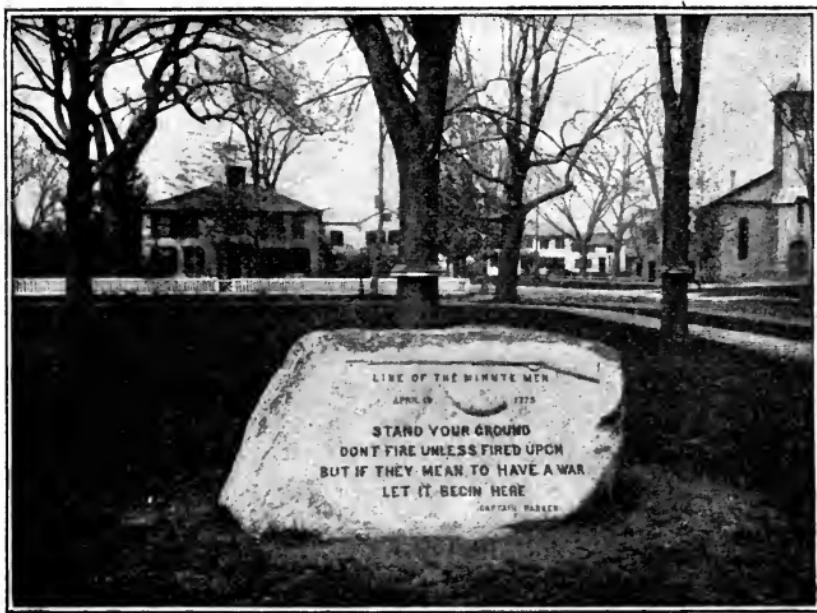
This famous old hall was first built in 1742 by Peter Faneuil, and given to the town. It has been called the "Cradle of Liberty," because the Sons of Liberty, a patriotic organization, held many meetings there in the years just preceding the revolution.

general conflagration sweep over the land, or an earthquake sink it, than one jot or tittle of that plighted faith fall to the ground. For myself, having twelve months ago, in this place, moved you that George Washington be appointed commander of the forces raised, or to be raised, for defence of American liberty, may my right hand forget its cunning, and my tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth, if I hesitate or waver in the support

I give him ! The war, then, must go on. We must fight it through.

And, if the war must go on, why put off longer the Declaration of Independence ? That measure will strengthen us. It will give us character abroad. The Nations will then treat with us, which they never can do while we acknowledge ourselves subjects in arms against our sovereign. Nay, I maintain that England herself will sooner treat for peace with us on the footing of independence, than consent, by repealing her acts, to acknowledge that her whole conduct towards us has been a course of injustice and oppression. Her pride will be less wounded by submitting to that course of things which now predestinates our independence, than by yielding the points in controversy to her rebellious subjects. The former she would regard as the result of fortune ; the latter, she would feel as her own deep disgrace. Why, then, Sir, do we not, as soon as possible, change this from a civil to a national war ? And, since we must fight it through, why not put ourselves in a state to enjoy all the benefits of victory, if we gain the victory ? If we fail, it can be no worse for us. But we shall not fail ! The cause will raise up armies ;—the cause will create navies. The people,—the people,—if we are true to them, will carry us, and will carry themselves, gloriously through this struggle. I care not how fickle other people have been found. I know the people of these colonies ; and I know that resistance to British aggression is deep and settled in their hearts, and cannot be eradicated. Every colony, indeed, has expressed its willingness to follow, if we but take the lead. Sir, the Declaration will inspire the people with increased courage. Instead of a long and bloody war for restoration of privileges, for redress of grievances, for chartered immunities, held under a British king, set before them the glorious object of entire independence, and it will breathe into them anew the breath of life. Read this

Declaration at the head of the army ;—every sword will be drawn from its scabbard, and the solemn vow uttered, to maintain it, or to perish on the bed of honor. Publish it from the Pulpit ;—religion will approve it, and the love of religious liberty will cling round it, resolved to stand with it, or fall with it. Send it to the public halls ; proclaim it there ; let them hear it who heard the first roar of the enemy's cannon,—let them see it



LEXINGTON

Here was fired the first shot of the revolutionary war in the early morning of April 19, 1775.

who saw their brothers and their sons fall on the field of Bunker Hill, and in the streets of Lexington and Concord,—and the very walls will cry out in its support !

Sir, I know the uncertainty of human affairs ; but I see clearly through this day's business. You and I, indeed, may rue it. We may not live to see the time when this Declaration shall be made good. We may die,—die colonists ; die slaves ;

die, it may be, ignominiously, and on the scaffold ! Be it so ! be it so ! If it be the pleasure of Heaven that my country shall require the poor offering of my life, the victim shall be ready at the appointed hour of sacrifice, come when that hour may. But, while I do live, let me have a country,—or, at least, the hope of a country, and that a free country.

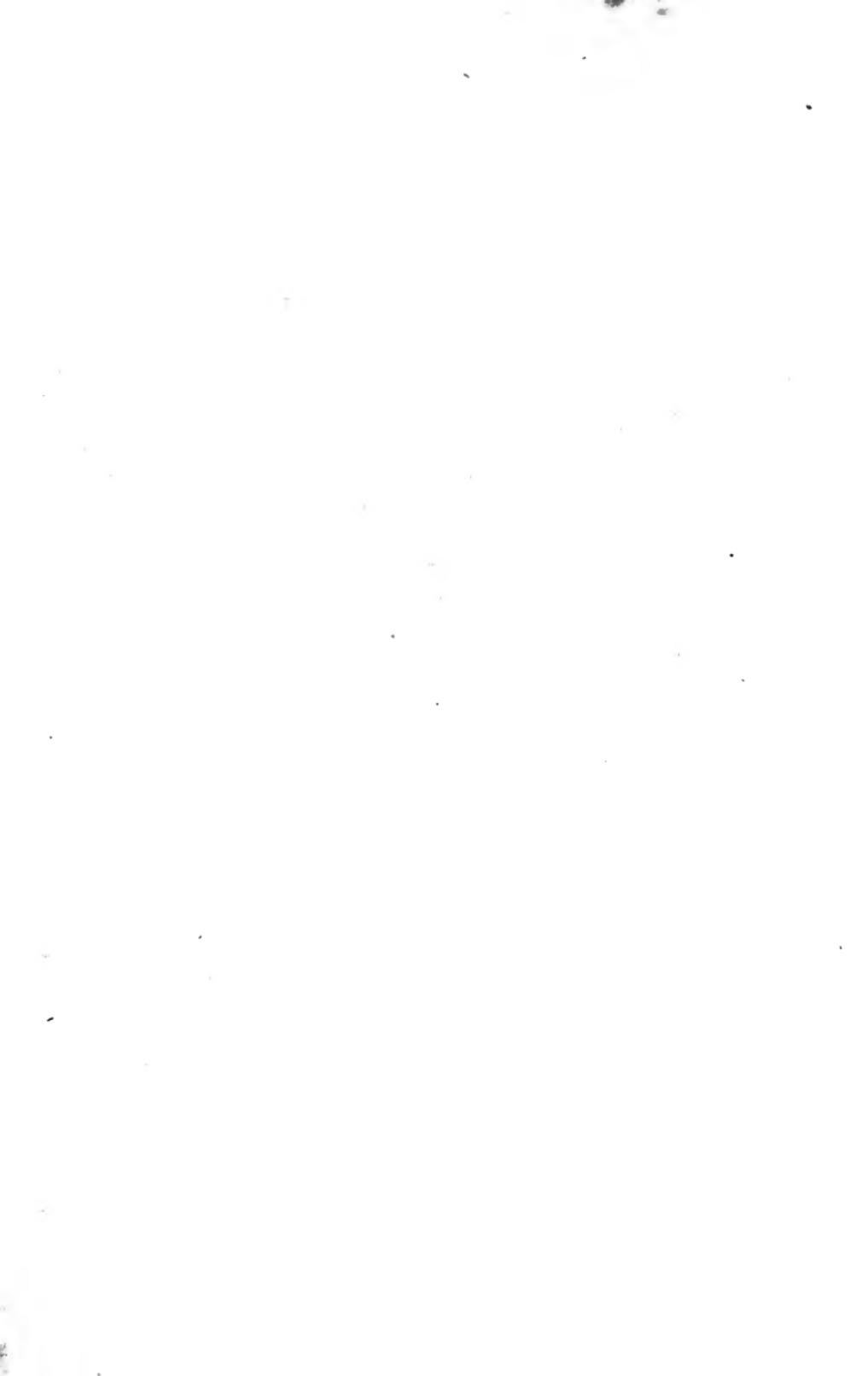
But, whatever may be our fate, be assured that this Declaration will stand. It may cost treasure, and it may cost blood ; but it will stand, and it will richly compensate for both. Through the thick gloom of the present, I see the brightness of the future, as the sun in Heaven. We shall make this a glorious, an immortal day. When we are in our graves, our children will honor it. They will celebrate it with thanksgiving, with festivity, with bonfires, and illuminations. On its annual return, they will shed tears,—copious, gushing tears,—not of subjection and slavery, not of agony and distress,—but of exultation, of gratitude, and of joy. Sir, before God, I believe the hour has come ! My judgment approves this measure, and my whole heart is in it. All that I have, and all that I am, and all that I hope, in this life, I am now ready here to stake upon it ; and I leave off, as I began, that, live or die, survive or perish, I am for the Declaration ! It is my living sentiment, and, by the blessing of God, it shall be my dying sentiment,—INDEPENDENCE now, and INDEPENDENCE FOREVER !

II. The Revolutionary War.—The war of independence—generally called the revolutionary war—was a hard struggle for the colonists. They were not very many or very rich, while Great Britain was one of the most powerful nations in the world. The first battle was at Lexington, Massachusetts, on the 19th of April, 1775. The British soldiers marched from Boston in the night in order to destroy some cannons and other military supplies which

ORIGINAL TERRITORY
of the
UNITED STATES

Treaty of 1783.





the colonists had at Concord. Coming to the little village of Lexington early in the morning, they found a company of colonial soldiers standing in line on the village green. The British fired on them, killing some and driving the rest away. The supplies at Concord were destroyed, but



CONCORD BATTLE-GROUND AND MONUMENT

On the 19th of April, 1775, the British troops from Boston reached Concord. At Concord bridge the minutemen were drawn up under arms and exchanged a sharp fire with the enemy. Having destroyed such supplies as they could find, the British marched back to Boston, pursued all the way by the swarming minutemen, whose bullets came from behind every tree and bush and stone wall. Thus began the revolutionary war.

“Here once the embattled farmers stood,
And fired the shot heard round the world.”

when the British started to march back to Boston they found that the colonists had come from far and near to attack them. These colonists were mostly farmers who had not had much military training, but they knew how to shoot, and they lined the woods and hilltops along roads

marched over by the British, keeping up a steady and destructive fire. It was only by meeting a large body of soldiers sent from Boston to help them that the expedition succeeded in getting back to Boston at all.

12. The Americans were not always so successful as they were in this first battle. Their armies were small, badly armed, and poorly clothed. One winter their principal



WASHINGTON VISITING SICK SOLDIERS AT VALLEY FORGE

army, commanded by General George Washington, was encamped at Valley Forge, in Pennsylvania. They lived in huts, had not enough to eat, or clothing enough to keep them warm. The snow was more than once stained with blood from the soldiers' feet, which their ragged shoes did not protect. But General Washington never despaired. He had been appointed to command all the armies of the colonists soon after the battle of Lexington, and he con-

tinued to lead them to the end. He was so great and noble a man that his soldiers always trusted and loved him. After many battles, some defeats and some victories, he made one of the principal British armies surrender at Yorktown, in Virginia. This was in 1781. This convinced the government of Great Britain that they could not conquer the colonies, and so at last peace was made.

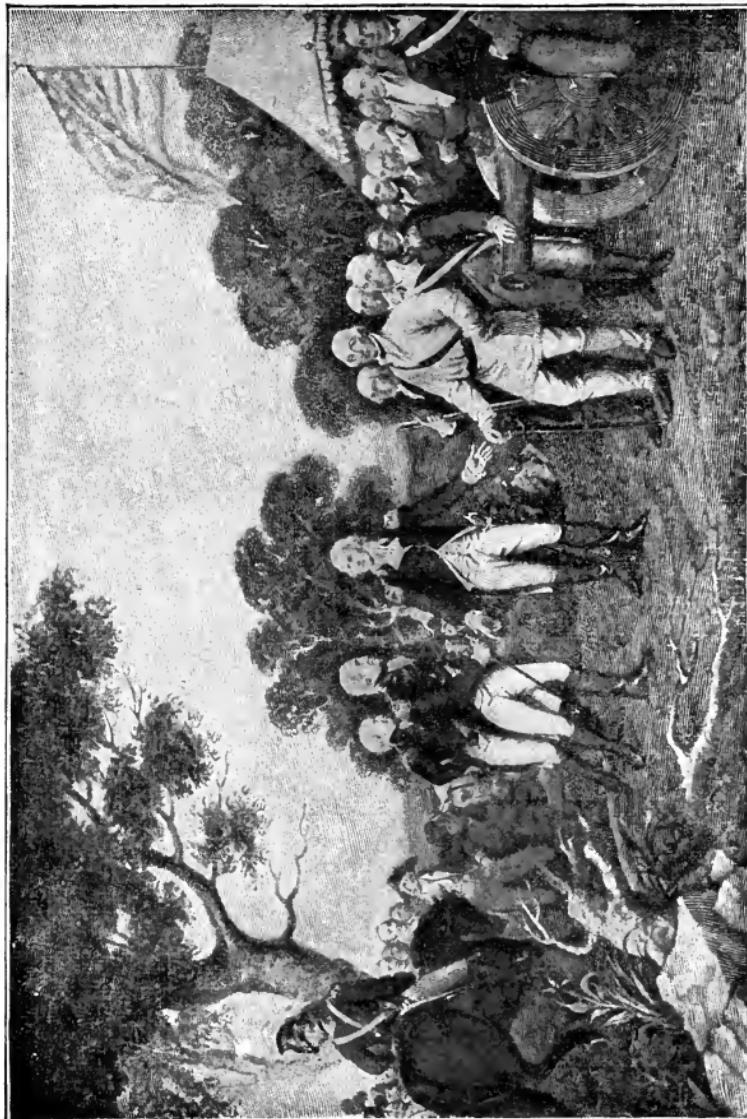
13. In the last years of the war the Americans were aided by France, which sent ships of war and soldiers to help General Washington win his victories.

14. The British king, George the Third, was mainly to blame for the ill treatment of the colonies which led to the war. The people of Great Britain, as a whole, did not like the war, and to-day few can be found in that country to justify King George. So while we can be proud of the spirit and heroism of our fathers who won our independence, we have no reason for feeling ill-will towards the British nation to-day because of the folly of dead and gone King George.

15. Edward Everett.—Edward Everett was a brilliant



EDWARD EVERETT



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THE SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE, SARATOGA, OCTOBER 17, 1777

General Burgoyne led an army of British and Indians from Canada, expecting to capture Albany; but he was surrounded by the Americans and finally compelled to surrender his whole army. The picture is from the painting by Trumbull in the rotunda of the capitol at Washington. *See footnote on page 63.*

scholar and orator. Born near Boston, Massachusetts, in 1794, he was graduated at Harvard College when only seventeen years old. He was a Unitarian preacher, professor in Harvard and president of that college, representative in congress, governor of Massachusetts, minister of the United States to Great Britain, secretary of state, United States senator from Massachusetts. He died in 1865. The following extract from one of his speeches shows the view of our relations to the mother country held by a patriotic and thoughtful American statesman :

Our Relations with England

EDWARD EVERETT

WHO does not feel, what reflecting American does not acknowledge, the incalculable advantages derived to this land out of the deep fountains of civil, intellectual, and moral truth, from which we have drawn in England? What American does not feel proud that his fathers were the countrymen of Bacon, of Newton, and of Locke? Who does not know, that, while every pulse of civil liberty in the heart of the British empire beat warm and full in the bosom of our ancestors, the sobriety, the firmness, and the dignity, with which the cause of free principles struggled into existence here, constantly found encouragement and countenance from the friends of liberty there? Who does not remember, that, when the Pilgrims went over the sea, the prayers of the faithful British confessors, in all the quarters of their dispersion, went over with them, while their aching eyes were strained till the star of hope should go up in the western skies? And who will ever forget, that, in that eventful struggle which severed these youthful republics

from the British crown, there was not heard, throughout our continent in arms, a voice which spoke louder for the rights of America than that of Burke, or of Chatham, within the walls of the British Parliament, and at the foot of the British throne ? No ; for myself, I can truly say, that, after my native land, I feel a tenderness and a reverence for that of my fathers. The pride I take in my own country makes me respect that from which we are sprung. In touching the soil of England, I seem to return, like a descendant, to the old family seat,—to come back to the abode of an aged and venerable parent. I acknowledge this great consanguinity of nations. The sound of my native language, beyond the sea, is a music, to my ear, beyond the richest strains of Tuscan softness or Castilian majesty. I am not yet in a land of strangers, while surrounded by the manners, the habits, and the institutions, under which I have been brought up. I wander delighted through a thousand scenes, which the historians and the poets have made familiar to us,—of which the names are interwoven with our earliest associations. I tread with reverence the spots where I can retrace the footsteps of our suffering fathers. The pleasant land of their birth has a claim on my heart. It seems to me a classic, yea, a holy land ; rich in the memory of the great and good, the champions and the martyrs of liberty, the exiled heralds of truth, and richer, as the parent of this land of promise in the West.

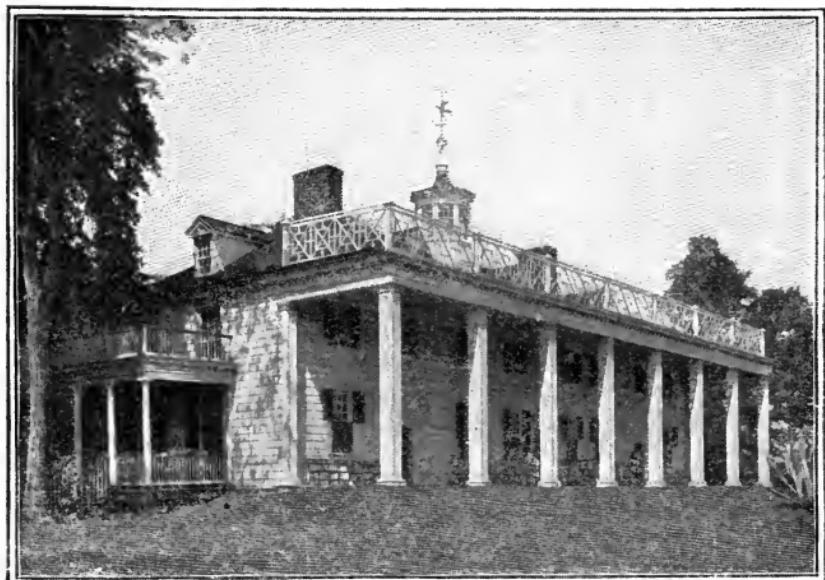
I am not—I need not say I am not—the panegyrist of England. I am not dazzled by her riches, nor awed by her power. The sceptre, the mitre, and the coronet,—stars, garters, and blue ribbons,—seem to me poor things for great men to contend for. Nor is my admiration awakened by her armies, mustered for the battles of Europe ; her navies, overshadowing the ocean ; nor her empire, grasping the furthest East. It is these, and the price of guilt and blood by which they are too often maintained,

which are the cause why no friend of liberty can salute her with undivided affections. But it is the cradle and the refuge of free principles, though often persecuted ; the school of religious liberty, the more precious for the struggles through which it has passed ; the tombs of those who have reflected honor on all who speak the English tongue ; it is the birth-place of our fathers, the home of the Pilgrims ;—it is these which I love and venerate in England. I should feel ashamed of an enthusiasm for Italy and Greece, did I not also feel it for a land like this. In an American, it would seem to me degenerate and ungrateful to hang with passion upon the traces of Homer and Virgil, and follow, without emotion, the nearer and plainer footsteps of Shakspeare and Milton. I should think him cold in his love for his native land who felt no melting in his heart for that other native country, which holds the ashes of his forefathers.

16. The Battle of Bunker Hill.—When the revolutionary war broke out in 1775, the city of Boston, Massachusetts, was held by the British army. The Americans, after the battle of Lexington (p. 73), gathered an army and laid siege to Boston. One night in June several hundred American soldiers were sent to seize a hill near Boston, from the top of which it would be easy for cannon to throw shot into the city and to sink the British warships in the harbor. The hill was reached quietly in the darkness and a breastwork was thrown up. When daylight came the British generals saw the Americans on the hill, and sent a large body of troops to drive them away. The British soldiers formed at the foot of the hill and marched up with colors flying and drums beating. The Americans waited until the enemy were very near, and then poured in so deadly a fire of bullets that the British ranks were broken

and driven down the hill in confusion. Again the British closed up their ranks and charged up the hill, and the second time they were driven back. When they advanced a third time, however, the Americans had to retreat, as their powder was gone. So the British took the hill.

17. But the battle proved that the Americans could



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MOUNT VERNON

This was the home of Washington, on a lofty Virginia bluff overlooking a wide sweep of the Potomac. The old house, which was built in 1743, is carefully preserved, and is filled with relics of Washington and his family. In a tomb near by sleeps the hero—he who was “first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen.”

fight—a fact which had been scornfully denied by British officers. Few battles in which the British regiments had been engaged were so bloody as this. They lost over a third of their number in killed and wounded. Bunker Hill battle was a British victory. But Americans will never forget the heroism of the men who on that day

taught the soldiers of King George that the colonists were in earnest.

18. Daniel Webster and the Bunker Hill Monument.

—Daniel Webster was born in New Hampshire in 1782. He was graduated at Dartmouth College, became a lawyer, and rose to high rank in political life. For many years he was senator from Massachusetts, and twice was secretary of state. He was one of the greatest constitutional lawyers and orators in our history.

19. To commemorate the battle, a granite monument has been erected on the hill where the Americans had their main defensive work. This obelisk is known as Bunker Hill Monument.

20. On the fiftieth anniversary of the Battle of Bunker Hill, June 17, 1825, the cornerstone of the monument was laid with imposing ceremonies. The address was delivered by Daniel Webster, one of the most famous of our orators. To do honor to the occasion, a little band of the survivors of the battle had been collected, all now aged men. To them Webster turned in the course of his speech, and spoke as follows :

“Venerable men ! you have come down to us from a former generation. Heaven has bounteously lengthened out your lives, that you might behold this joyous day. You are now where you stood fifty years ago, this very hour, with your brothers and your neighbors, shoulder to shoulder, in the strife of your country. Behold how altered ! The same heavens are, indeed, over your heads ; the same ocean rolls at your feet ; but all else how changed ! You hear now no roll of hostile cannon ; you see no mixed volumes of smoke and flame rising from burning

Charlestown. The ground strewed with dead and dying ; the impetuous charge ; the steady and successful repulse ; the loud call to repeated assault ; the summoning of all that is manly to



DANIEL WEBSTER AT THE AGE OF SIXTY-FOUR

repeated resistance ; a thousand bosoms freely and fearlessly bared in an instant to whatever of terror there may be in war and death—all these you have witnessed, but you witness them

no more. All is peace. The heights of yonder metropolis, its towers and roofs, which you then saw filled with wives and children, and countrymen in distress and terror, and looking with unutterable emotions for the issue of the combat, have presented you to-day with the sight of its whole happy population, come out to welcome and greet you with an universal jubilee. Yonder proud ships, by the felicity of position appropriately lying at the foot of this mount, and seeming fondly to cling around it, are not means of annoyance to you, but your country's own means of distinction and defence. All is peace ; and God has granted you this sight of your country's happiness, ere you slumber in the grave forever. He has allowed you to behold and partake the rewards of your patriotic toils ; and he has allowed us, your sons and countrymen, to meet you here, and in the name of the present generation, in the name of your country, in the name of liberty, to thank you !

“ But, alas ! you are not all here ! Time and the sword have thinned your ranks. Prescott, Putnam, Stark, Brooks, Read, Pomeroy, Bridge ! our eyes seek for you in vain amidst this broken band. You are gathered to your fathers, and live only to your country in her grateful remembrance, and your own bright example. But let us not too much grieve that you have met the common fate of men. You lived, at least, long enough to know that your work had been nobly and successfully accomplished. You lived to see your country's independence established, and to sheathe your swords from war. On the light of Liberty you saw arise the light of Peace, like

‘ Another morn,
Risen on mid-noon ;’ —

and the sky, on which you closed your eyes, was cloudless.”

21. Patrick Henry's Famous Speech.—In the exciting days of the beginning of the American revolution the

people of Virginia elected a convention to consider what was best for that old colony to do. In March, 1775, only

a few weeks before the battle of Lexington brought on the war, a debate was going on in the convention which seemed likely to result in no definite action being taken. This fired the spirit of Patrick Henry, and he offered resolutions providing that the colony should at once prepare for war.



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT

This granite obelisk, 221 feet high, is erected on the spot where the battle was fought, June 17, 1775. The cornerstone was laid June 17, 1825, and the monument was dedicated June 17, 1843. On each occasion Daniel Webster was the orator.

22. Patrick Henry was born in Virginia, the son of a Scotchman, in 1736. His education was very scanty, and he began the practice of law after a preparation of only six weeks. But he had extraordinary natural powers of elo-

quence, and in speaking to his resolutions in the convention, he thrilled his audience with the speech which follows. One who was present says that when Henry took his seat

“No murmur of applause was heard. The effect was too deep. After the trance of a moment, several members started from their seats. The cry, *To arms!* seemed to quiver on every lip, and gleam from every eye. They became impatient of speech. Their souls were on fire for action.”

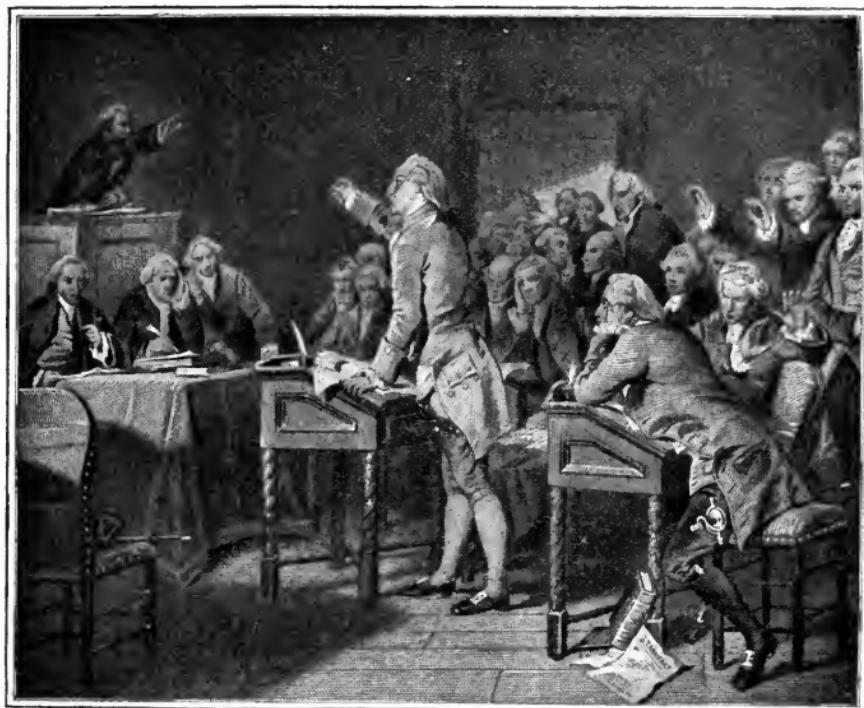
23. This is the famous speech, which over and again has been declaimed by every generation of school-boys since :

MR. PRESIDENT : It is natural to man to indulge in the illusions of Hope. We are apt to shut our eyes against a painful truth, and listen to the song of that siren, till she transforms us into beasts. Is this the part of wise men, engaged in a great and arduous struggle for liberty ? Are we disposed to be of the number of those who, having eyes, see not, and having ears, hear not, the things which so nearly concern our temporal salvation ? For my part, whatever anguish of spirit it may cost, I am willing to know the whole truth,—to know the worst, and to provide for it!

I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided ; and that is the lamp of experience. I know of no way of judging of the future but by the past. And, judging by the past, I wish to know what there has been in the conduct of the British ministry, for the last ten years, to justify those hopes with which gentlemen have been pleased to solace themselves and the House ? Is it that insidious smile with which our petition has been lately received ? Trust it not, Sir ; it will prove a snare to your feet ! Suffer not yourselves to be betrayed with a kiss ! Ask yourselves how this gracious reception of our petition comports with those warlike preparations which cover our waters and darken our land. Are fleets and armies necessary to a work of love and reconciliation ? Have we shown our-

selves so unwilling to be reconciled, that force must be called in to win back our love ?

Let us not deceive ourselves, Sir. These are the implements of war and subjugation,—the last arguments to which Kings



PATRICK HENRY'S SPEECH

In the Virginia House of Burgesses, 1765, Mr. Henry introduced resolutions against the Stamp act. In the course of the debate he exclaimed, “Cæsar had his Brutus—Charles the First his Cromwell—and George the Third”—(“Treason !” cried the speaker; “Treason ! treason !” echoed from every part of the house. Henry did not hesitate a moment, but finished his sentence with firm emphasis) “may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it.” This was the first step toward the revolution in Virginia.

resort. I ask, Gentlemen, Sir, what means this martial array, if its purpose be not to force us to submission ? Can Gentlemen assign any other possible motive for it ? Has Great Britain any enemy in this quarter of the world, to call for all this accumulation of navies and armies ? No, Sir, she has none. They are

meant for us ; they can be meant for no other. They are sent over to bind and rivet upon us those chains which the British ministry have been so long forging. And what have we to oppose to them ?—Shall we try argument ? Sir, we have been trying that, for the last ten years. Have we anything new to offer upon the subject ? Nothing. We have held the subject up in every light of which it is capable ; but it has been all in vain.

Shall we resort to entreaty and humble supplication ? What terms shall we find which have not already been exhausted ? Let us not, I beseech you, Sir, deceive ourselves longer. Sir, we have done everything that could be done, to avert the storm which is now coming on. We have petitioned, we have remonstrated, we have supplicated, we have prostrated ourselves before the Throne, and have implored its interposition to arrest the tyrannical hands of the Ministry and Parliament. Our petitions have been slighted, our remonstrances have produced additional violence and insult, our supplications have been disregarded, and we have been spurned, with contempt, from the foot of the Throne.

In vain, after these things, may we indulge the fond hope of peace and reconciliation. There is no longer any room for hope. If we wish to be free,—if we mean to preserve inviolate those inestimable privileges for which we have been so long contending,—if we mean not basely to abandon the noble struggle in which we have been so long engaged, and which we have pledged ourselves never to abandon until the glorious object of our contest shall be obtained,—we must fight ; I repeat it, Sir, we must fight ! An appeal to arms, and to the God of Hosts, is all that is left us !

They tell us, Sir, that we are weak,—unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger ? Will it be the next week, or the next year ? Will it be when we are

totally disarmed, and when a British guard shall be stationed in every house ? Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction ? Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs, and hugging the delusive phantom of hope, until our enemies shall have bound us hand and foot ? Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power.

Three millions of People, armed in the holy cause of liberty, and in such a country as that which we possess, are invincible by any force which our enemy can send against us. Besides, Sir, we shall not fight our battles alone. There is a just God who presides over the destinies of Nations, and who will raise up friends to fight our battles for us. The battle, Sir, is not to the strong alone ; it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. Besides, Sir, we have no election. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest. There is no retreat but in submission and slavery ! Our chains are forged ! Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston ! The war is inevitable ; and let it come ! I repeat it, Sir, let it come !

It is in vain, Sir, to extenuate the matter. Gentlemen may cry, peace, peace!—but there is no peace. The war is actually begun ! The next gale that sweeps from the North will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms ! Our brethren are already in the field ! Why stand we here idle ? What is it that Gentlemen wish ? What would they have ? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery ? Forbid it, Almighty God ! I know not what course others may take ; but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death !

24. A Cluster of Poems About the Revolution.—
The stirring events of the revolutionary war have inspired



THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL, JUNE 17, 1775

This is from Trumbull's painting. It represents the moment when the British finally carried the American entrenchments, just as General Warren fell.

many poems, many vivid works of fiction, and many of the finest orations in our language. A couple of the orations have been given. There now follow a few of the poems.

Bunker Hill

B. F. TAYLOR *

To the wail of the fife and the snarl of the drum
Those Hedgers and Ditchers of Bunker Hill come,
Down out of the battle with rumble and roll,
Straight across the two ages, right into the soul,
And bringing for captive the Day that they won
With a deed that like Joshua halted the sun.
Like bells in their towers tolled the guns from the town,
Beat that low earthen bulwark so sullen and brown,
As if Titans last night had plowed the one bout
And abandoned the field for a Yankee redoubt ;
But for token of life that the parapet gave
They might as well play on Miles Standish's grave !
Then up the green hill rolled the red of the Georges
And down the green vale rolled the grime of the forges ;
Ten rods from the ridges hung the live surge,
Not a murmur to meet it broke over the verge,
But the click of flint-locks in the furrows along,
And the chirp of a sparrow just singing her song.
In the flash of an eye, as the dead shall be raised,
The dull bastion kindled, the parapet blazed,
And the musketry cracked, glowing hotter and higher,
Like a forest of hemlock, its lashes of fire,

* Benjamin Franklin Taylor was the son of a professor in the college now called Colgate University, in the state of New York. There he was educated, and thence he went to devote himself to journalism and literary work. He died in 1887.

And redder the scarlet and riven the ranks,
 And Putnam's guns hung, with a roar on the flanks.
 Now the battle grows dumb and the grenadiers wheel,
 'Tis the crash of clubbed musket, the thrust of cold steel,
 At bay all the way, while the guns held their breath,
 Foot to foot, eye to eye, with each other and Death.
 Call the roll, Sergeant Time ! Match the day if you can ;
 Waterloo was for Britons—Bunker Hill is for man !

* Warren's Address to the American Soldiers at
 Bunker Hill

JOHN PIERPONT †

STAND ! the ground's your own, my braves !
 Will ye give it up to slaves ?
 Will ye look for greener graves ?
 Hope ye mercy still ?
 What 's the mercy despots feel ?
 Hear it in that battle peal !
 Read it on yon bristling steel !
 Ask it, ye who will.

Fear ye foes who kill for hire ?
 Will ye to your *homes* retire ?
 Look behind you ! they're afire !
 And before you, see
 Who have done it !—From the vale
 On they come !—And will ye quail ?—
 Leaden rain and iron hail
 Let their welcome be !

* General Joseph Warren fought at the battle of Bunker Hill as a volunteer, declining to take command. He was killed just as the Americans were retreating.

† The Rev. John Pierpont was born in Connecticut in 1785, was graduated at Yale College; was a lawyer, merchant, clergyman, and poet. He died in 1866.

In the God of battles trust !
 Die we may,—and die we must;
 But, O, where can dust to dust
 Be consigned so well,
 As where Heaven its dews shall shed
 On the martyred patriot's bed,
 And the rocks shall raise their head,
 Of his deeds to tell !

Song of Marion's Men

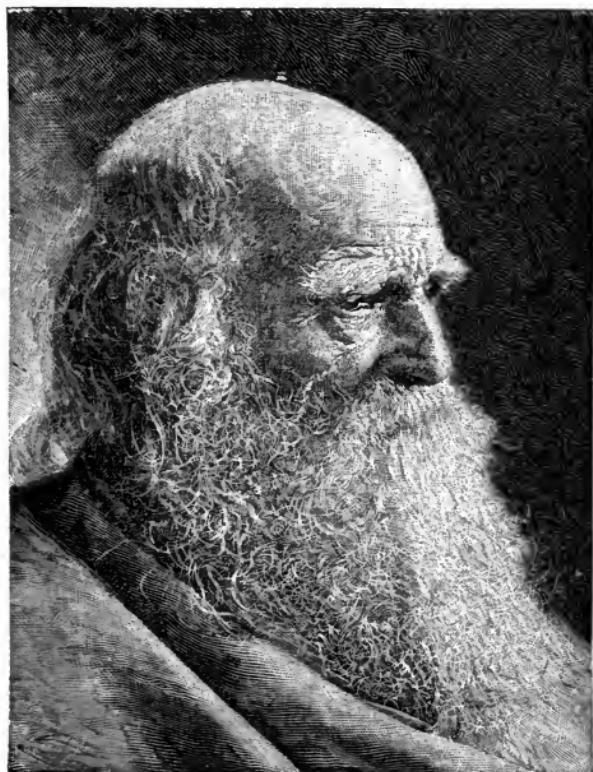
WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT *

OUR band is few, but true and tried,
 Our leader frank and bold ;
 The British soldier trembles
 When Marion's name is told.
 Our fortress is the good greenwood,
 Our tent the cypress-tree ;
 We know the forest round us
 As seamen know the sea.
 We know its walls of thorny vines,
 Its glades of reedy grass,
 Its safe and silent islands
 Within the dark morass.

Woe to the English soldiery
 That little dread us near !
 On them shall light at midnight
 A strange and sudden fear :

* William Cullen Bryant, born in Massachusetts in 1797, was an American poet and journalist. He was a student at Williams College, but did not remain to graduate. His most famous poem was "Thanatopsis." He died in 1878.

When waking to their tents on fire
They grasp their arms in vain,
And they who stand to face us
Are beat to earth again ;
And they who fly in terror deem
A mighty host behind,
And hear the tramp of thousands
Upon the hollow wind.



WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT

Then sweet the hour that brings release
From danger and from toil :
We talk the battle over,
And share the battle's spoil.

The woodland rings with laugh and shout,
As if a hunt were up,
And woodland flowers are gathered
To crown the soldier's cup.
With merry songs we mock the wind
That in the pine-top grieves,
And slumber long and sweetly
On beds of oaken leaves.

Well knows the fair and friendly moon
The band that Marion leads—
The glitter of their rifles,
The scampering of their steeds.
'Tis life to guide the fiery barb
Across the moonlight plain ;
'Tis life to feel the night-wind
That lifts the tossing mane.
A moment in the British camp—
A moment—and away
Back to the pathless forest
Before the peep of day.

Grave men there are by broad Santee,
Grave men with hoary hairs;
Their hearts are all with Marion,
For Marion are their prayers.
And lovely ladies greet our band
With kindliest welcoming,
With smiles like those of summer,
And tears like those of spring.
For them we wear these trusty arms,
And lay them down no more
Till we have driven the Briton
Forever from our shore.

CHAPTER VII

A Federal Republic

1. **What a Constitution Is.**—We remember that a government is chosen by the people to do the public business. But when some men are chosen to make laws, for instance, and others to carry those laws out, if they are left wholly at liberty they may make and execute very bad laws. We do not think that a very safe kind of government. Indeed, if we should permit it we might soon be no better off than Russia, whose tsar makes whatever laws he pleases. So, in order to prevent this sort of thing from happening, the people of the United States made first of all one great set of laws which everybody must obey. This set of laws tells how the government shall be formed, what the legislature shall be, and the administration, and the courts. Then it goes on to say what things each branch of government may do, and what sort of things they must not do. That makes us safe. If the legislature tries to make a law which it is forbidden to make, the court says that their act is no law at all, and then nobody is bound to obey it.

2. This set of laws which provides for the form of government, and for what it may do and for what it must not do, is called the *Constitution*.

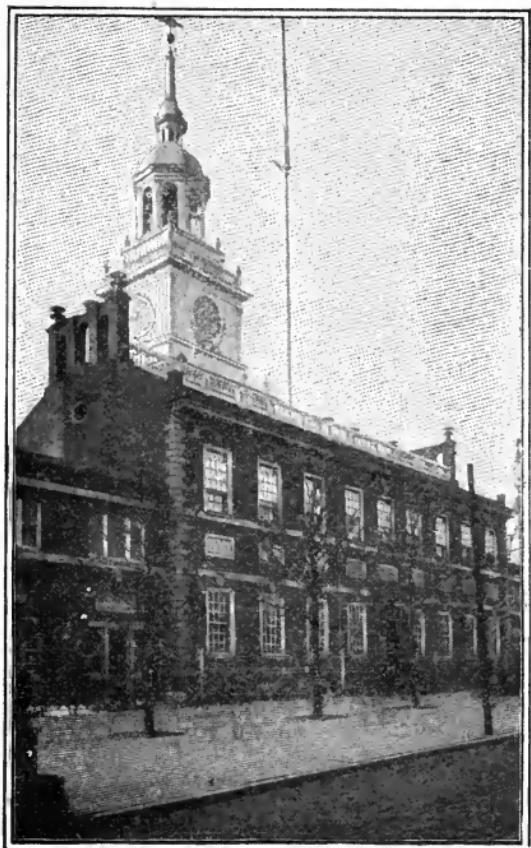
3. The people of no country can be really free, or safe from a selfish and cruel government, without a good con-

stitution. We are very proud of the Constitution of the United States.* It was made soon after the revolutionary

war was ended, and has served to protect our liberty and to insure us a good government now for more than a century.

4. Many in One.

—Before the revolutionary war the thirteen colonies each had a government of its own. To be sure, these governments were not independent, but had to obey the government of Great Britain, in London. But, of course, with the war this dependence ceased, and the colonies governed themselves. However, they had to act



INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA

In this building met the congress of the thirteen colonies which adopted the Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776.

together in the war, and in order to do that they each of them sent representatives to what they called a *congress*, at Philadelphia. Congress was a sort of common government for all the colonies, so far as the war was concerned. It

* The Constitution will be found in the Appendix, p. 240.

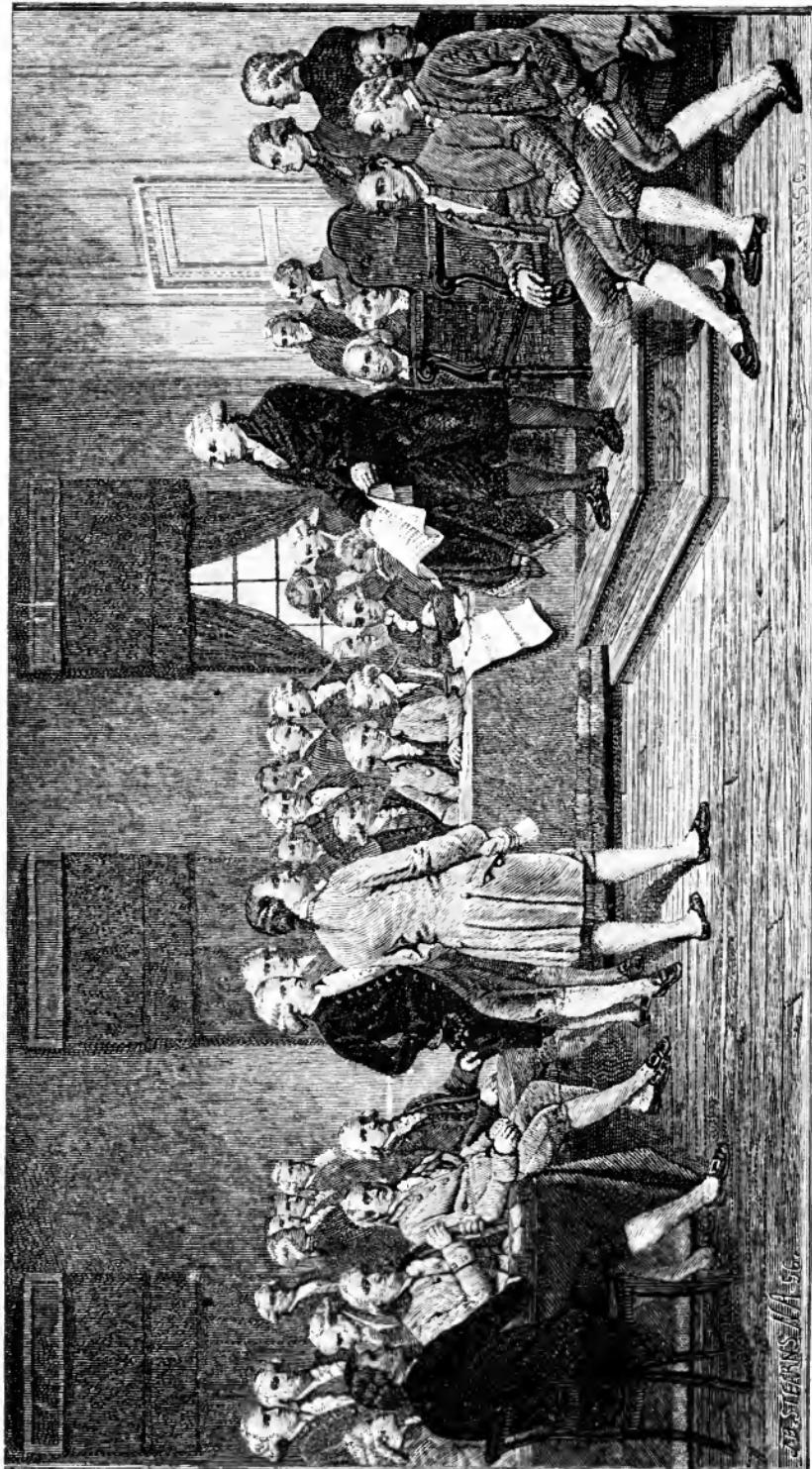
was this congress which made the Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776. After that the colonies called themselves *states*; their union they called the *United States of America*.

5. After the war was over the states found it necessary to make a better government for the new republic. So they made the Constitution* of which we have spoken. But meanwhile each of the states kept its own separate constitution and government. Thus we see at once that the United States has one government for the whole country and another for each one of the forty-five states. Thus our republic is “many in one”—many states forming one republic. This sort of government—“many in one”—is called a *federation*. So the United States is a federation. We also call it the *Union*.

6. The government for the whole country—for the Union—is called the *federal* government, or, which is the same thing, the *national* government.

7. The place where the laws are made is called the *capital*. The capital of the United States is the city of Washington—named for the hero of the revolutionary war. There the national legislature—also called “congress,” like that of the revolutionary colonies—meets every year and makes laws for the republic. Besides that, each state has its own capital, where the state legislature meets and makes laws for the state.

* The convention which framed the Constitution met at Philadelphia in May, 1787, and finished its labors in the following September. Washington was president of the convention, and among its members were many of the wisest and best men in the young republic. Mr. Gladstone, the great English statesman, has said: “The American Constitution is the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man.”



THE ADOPTION OF THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION, PHILADELPHIA, SEPTEMBER 17, 1787. See *Footnote on page 97*

8. The capital was in New York for a short time, but longer in Philadelphia, before the city of Washington was built. The first time the government met at the present capital was in 1801, and there it has been ever since. It is a beautiful city, with magnificent public buildings, wide streets, parks, and numerous statues and monuments of the great men of the republic. Washington is not in a state, but lies in a territory given to the United States by the state of Maryland, and called the District of Columbia. So the national capital belongs to the nation.

9. How Interference Is Avoided.—It might be thought that so many legislatures might make laws which would interfere with one another. But the Constitution prevents that. In the first place, congress may make only such laws as the Constitution permits. Then the state legislatures are forbidden to make any laws which shall interfere either with the Constitution or with the laws made by congress. In this way there is very little trouble about the interference of laws.

10. The Old Thirteen.—The thirteen colonies which resisted the tyranny of the British government became the thirteen United States. They were New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. Some people think thirteen an unlucky number. The success of the old thirteen states, a fact yet brought to mind by the thirteen stripes of the American flag, shows how foolish is such a notion.

11. The New Thirty-two.—When the old thirteen

colonies became an independent republic, the land between the Allegheny Mountains and the Mississippi River was a wilderness. Very few white men were living scattered among its forests and prairies, and these few were mostly hunters. Wild beasts and wild Indians were almost the only inhabitants of the wild land.

12. All this wilderness belonged to some of the states. What is now the state of Kentucky was a part of Virginia, and what is now Tennessee belonged to North Carolina. The rest of the land of which we are speaking was claimed by several states—Georgia, South Carolina, Virginia, New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts.

13. But when people crossed the mountains into the woods south of the Ohio River and made their homes there, it was very inconvenient for them to be under the government of Virginia and North Carolina. There were no railroads in those days, and it took many days to go by the forest trails to and fro across the mountains. Then, too, the people east of the mountain range were busy and absorbed in their own affairs, and the settlers in the far west did not find it easy to get such laws as they wanted. So the latter asked to be allowed to form new states. Virginia and North Carolina were willing, and so, in 1792, the congress of the United States admitted Kentucky, and in 1796 Tennessee, to the Union. The Constitution gives congress the power to admit new states to the Union. So every one of the thirty-two which have come in since the old thirteen, has been admitted by an act of congress.

14. Vermont was admitted the year before Kentucky. Both New Hampshire and New York claimed to own the

Green Mountains, and, as these states could not agree, the quarrel was settled by allowing Vermont (which means *Green Mountains*) to be a separate state.

15. The states which owned, or claimed to own, the land west of the Allegheny Mountains, and not included in the new states of Kentucky and Tennessee, gave all that land to the United States. So congress made the laws for it, and when enough people had made settlements, one portion after another came into the Union as states. In this way were admitted Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Michigan, Alabama, and Mississippi.

16. When the revolutionary war was ended, in 1783, the United States was bounded on the west by the Mississippi River. Spain owned everything west of that stream as far as the Pacific. Spain also owned Florida, and the land from Florida to the great river, too. But nearly twenty years later France bought from Spain all that vast area from the Mississippi to the Rocky Mountains and from Texas to British America. And then France sold this land to the United States. This was in 1803, just twenty years after the war of independence. We paid France fifteen millions of dollars, and cheap enough it was at that price. There were not many people there then. The first settlers had been French people; for what Spain sold to France had before that been sold by France to Spain. New Orleans was a French city of no great size in 1803, and a few other French settlements were scattered along the river. But nearly all the land was a wilderness, a sea of treeless prairies, over which roamed herds of buffalo and tribes of wild Indians.

17. Many people in 1803 thought it was foolish to give so much money for a great tract of uninhabited land. Very little was known about it, indeed. Few travelers had gone far west of the Mississippi. Strange tales were told "of a tribe of Indians of gigantic stature; of tall bluffs faced with stone and carved by the hand of nature into what seemed a multitude of antique towers; of land so fertile as to yield the necessities of life almost spontaneously; of an immense prairie covered with buffalo, and producing nothing but grass because the soil was far too rich for the growth of trees; and how, a thousand miles up the Missouri, was a vast mountain of salt! The length was one hundred and eighty miles; the breadth was forty-five; not a tree, not so much as a shrub was on it; but, all glittering white, it rose from the earth a solid mountain of rock-salt, with streams of saline water flowing from the fissures and cavities at its base! The story, the account admitted, might well seem incredible; but, unhappily for the doubters, bushels of the salt had been shown by traders to the people at St. Louis." (McMaster's "History of the People of the United States.")

18. In time, however, people went into the new land across the Mississippi in such numbers that many states have been admitted into the Union from the French purchase—Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, the Dakotas, Nebraska, Kansas. A great part of Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado was also included in the purchase.

19. Florida was bought from Spain in 1819, and some years later became a state of the Union.

20. At about that time there was a revolution in the

remaining Spanish colonies, and they, following the example of the United States, declared their independence and set up republican governments of their own. Spain tried to conquer her colonies, but did not succeed any better than had Great Britain. One of the new Spanish American republics was Mexico, whose territory included a large part of what is now the southwestern portion of the United States. But Americans went across the line and settled on Mexican soil in large numbers, and finally they declared their independence of Mexico, forming the republic of Texas. The Mexicans were not able to conquer the Texans in war, and in 1845 the congress of the United States admitted Texas to the Union. This unhappily led to a war between Mexico and the United States. The Mexicans were overcome, and at the end of the war they gave up to the United States a large amount of land—all west of the Rocky Mountains between the present northern boundary of Mexico and the state of Oregon. The United States paid Mexico eighteen and a half million dollars for the land. Several states have come into the Union from this Mexican land. California was the first to be admitted. It was not generally known when peace was made with Mexico that there was gold in California. But the discovery of the precious metal brought great numbers of people there from all parts of the world, so that in a very few years California became a state. Nevada, Utah, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming were also in the Mexican land. The country including the states of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho was discovered by Americans when it was a desolate wilderness, and so the United States came to own it.

21. The state of Maine was a part of Massachusetts until 1820. But it was more convenient for the people of that district to be in a separate state, and in 1820 congress accordingly admitted Maine to the Union.

22. So we see that since the republic was formed by the original thirteen states the congress has admitted thirty-two more states to the Union. Our flag, therefore, now has forty-five stars.

23. But there are still large areas of land belonging to the United States which are not included within any state of the Union. When such land is settled by a considerable number of people, but not by enough for a state, congress makes a law providing for a local government. There is usually a governor appointed by the president of the United States, a legislature elected by the people, and courts whose judges are appointed by the president. A district so governed is called a *territory*. Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico are territories provided with a government of this sort. The Indian Territory belongs to certain Indian tribes, each of which has a government of its own. Alaska was bought from Russia in 1867. There are so few people living there that it has not yet a full territorial government.

24. The territories which have a government send each of them one *delegate* to the lower house of congress. But the delegates cannot vote. The territories have no senators, and have no electors for president of the United States (p. 129). It is expected that in time each territory will have more people, and will then become a state of the Union.

TERRITORIAL GROWTH
OF THE
UNITED STATES



25. The Migration to Kentucky.—On page 59 is found a sketch of the rush of people to California at about the middle of this century. The migration to Kentucky, which is pictured in what follows, occurred in the latter part of the eighteenth century.

26. John James Audubon was a famous American ornithologist, who spent many years traveling and studying birds. His great work, "The Birds of America," was embellished by hundreds of beautiful colored plates. His travels took him into the forests of the far west, and he described with vivid clearness what he saw. He died in 1851, at the age of seventy-one years.

Migration to Kentucky

JOHN JAMES AUDUBON

THE Virginians thronged toward the Ohio. An ax, a couple of horses, and a heavy rifle, with store of ammunition, were all that were considered necessary for the equipment of the man, who, with his family, removed to the new state ; assured that, in that land of exuberant fertility, he could not fail to provide amply for all his wants.

To have witnessed the industry and perseverance of these emigrants must at once have proved the origin of their minds. Regardless of the fatigue attending every movement which they made, they pushed through an unexplored region of dark and tangled forests, guiding themselves by the sun alone, and reposing at night on the bare ground. They had to cross numberless streams on rafts with their wives and children, their cattle, and their luggage; often drifting to considerable distances before they could effect a landing on the opposite shores.

Their cattle would often stray amid the rich pasturage of these shores, and occasion a delay of several days. To these troubles add the constantly impending danger of being murdered, while asleep in their encampments, by the prowling and ruthless Indians. To encounter difficulties like these must have required energies of no ordinary kind, and the reward which these veteran settlers enjoyed was doubtless well merited.

Some removed from the Atlantic shores to those of the Ohio in more comfort and security. They had their wagons, their negroes, and their families; their way was cut through the woods by their ax-men the day before their advance; and, when night overtook them, the hunters attached to the party came to the place pitched upon for encamping, loaded with the dainties of which the forest yielded an abundant supply; the blazing light of a huge fire guiding their steps as they approached, and the sounds of merriment that saluted their ears assuring them that all was well. The flesh of the buffalo, the bear, and the deer soon hung in large and delicious steaks in front of the embers; the cakes, already prepared, were deposited in their proper places, and, under the rich drip of the juicy roasts, were quickly baked. The wagons contained the bedding; and, while the horses which had drawn them were turned loose to feed on the luxuriant undergrowth of the woods, some perhaps hopped, but the greater number merely with a bell hung to their neck, to guide their owners in the morning to the spot where they may have rambled, the party were enjoying themselves after the fatigues of the day.

In anticipation, all is pleasure; and these migrating bands feasted in joyous sociality, unapprehensive of any greater difficulties than those to be encountered in forcing their way through the pathless woods to the land of abundance; and although it took months to accomplish the journey, and a skirmish now and then took place between them and the Indians,

who sometimes crept unperceived into their very camp, still did the Virginians cheerfully proceed toward the western horizon, until the various groups all reached the Ohio; when, struck with the beauty of that magnificent stream, they at once commenced the task of clearing land for the purpose of establishing a permanent residence.

Others, perhaps encumbered with too much luggage, preferred descending the stream. They prepared *arks* pierced with put-holes, and glided on the gentle current; more annoyed, however, than those who marched by land, by the attack of Indians, who watched their motions.

Many travelers have described these boats, formerly called *arks*, but now named flat-boats; but have they told you that in those times a boat thirty or forty feet in length, by ten or twelve in breadth, was considered a stupendous fabric?—that this boat contained men, women, and children, huddled together with horses, cattle, hogs, and poultry for their companions, while the remaining portion was crammed with vegetables and packages of seeds? The roof or deck of the boat was not unlike a farm-yard, being covered with hay, plows, carts, wagons, and various agricultural implements, together with numerous others, among which the spinning-wheels of the matrons were conspicuous. Even the sides of the floating mass were loaded with the wheels of the different vehicles, which themselves lay on the roof.

Have they told you that these boats contained the little all of each family of venturesome emigrants, who, fearful of being discovered by the Indians, moved about in darkness when night came on, groping their way from one part to another of these floating habitations, and denying themselves the comfort of fire or light, lest the foe that watched them from the shore would rush upon them and destroy them? Have they told you that this boat was used, after the tedious voyage was ended, as the first dwelling of these new settlers?

I shall not describe the many massacres which took place among the different parties of white and red men, as the former moved down the Ohio, because I have never been very fond of battles, and, indeed, have always wished that the world were more peaceably inclined than it is ; and I shall merely add that, in one way or another, Kentucky was wrested from the original owners of the soil.

CHAPTER VIII

American Home Rule

1. We have seen that there is one government for the republic, the principal officers of which are at the city of Washington, and also that each of the forty-five states has a government of its own.

2. But this is not all. The people in the states are scattered over a wide area, living in cities and in villages and in solitary farm-houses. Now, the purpose of government is to make and enforce laws for all to obey, and to manage such business as is for the common interest.

3. **What Local Self-Government Is.**—An example of such business is the building of a bridge. If a stream is too deep to cross easily in the water, it is plain that a bridge ought to be built. But as this would be for the benefit of anybody who might want to cross, it would seldom pay any one man to build it. It ought to be built by the government, for the use of all the people. But, after all, such a bridge would not be used very much except by the people who might live rather near it. In a great state there would be many thousands of people who would know or care nothing about it. And so we think that the people most likely to use the bridge are the ones who ought to decide whether they will have one or not, and who ought to pay for it.

4. In other words, we think that each neighborhood ought to be left free to manage its own affairs. This is what we call *local self-government*, or *home rule*.

5. **Counties.**—In order to provide for this local freedom, in the first place every state is divided into a number of rather large neighborhoods, usually called *counties*. In the state of Louisiana they are called *parishes*. Each county has a name. The number of counties differs in different states. In New York there are sixty, in Illinois one hundred two.

6. Each county has a government of its own, chosen by the people. This county government may make laws, only they must not interfere with the laws of the nation or state. It is the duty of the county government, too, to see that the state laws as well as the county laws are obeyed in the county. And they manage such county affairs as are intrusted to them. There is always a county jail, and usually a county house or farm for paupers.

7. **The County Jail.**—The jail is a strong building, with heavy locks for the doors and with iron gratings over the windows. When any one is arrested on the charge of having committed some crime he is sent to the jail for safe-keeping until the court meets for his trial. If, on the trial, the court decides that the prisoner is guilty of the crime charged, he may be sentenced to a term in *prison*. This is quite another thing than the jail. The prison, or penitentiary, belongs to the state, and the prisoners are usually kept busy with some useful work. In the jail the prisoners are not made to work.

8. People who commit some very small offense against

the law, too small to warrant a sentence to state's prison, are sometimes sent to jail for a short time—a few days, or weeks, perhaps.

9. The jailer often lives in a house adjoining the jail. He has to have assistants to help him take care of the building and of the prisoners, and keep watch that the latter do not escape. The jailer and his assistants are employed by the county.

10. It is a great disgrace to be sent to jail. But, unfortunately, there are always some people who will not obey the laws, and of course they have to be punished. Thieves and counterfeiters and incendiaries must be sent to jail and prison, or nobody's property would be safe. A good citizen is always very careful not to interfere with the rights of others. He is honest with his neighbors' property, and never does any harm either to person or property if he can help it. If all the people were good citizens no jails would be needed.

11. **The Rothschilds.**—Nearly everybody has heard of the family of *Rothschilds*, the rich bankers of Europe. Their wealth is enormous—so great that they make loans only to governments and only in very large sums.

12. The early history of their vast fortune is quite curious. About a hundred years ago there was in the city of Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany, a Jewish money-lender named Mayer Anselm Bauer. His sign was a *red shield*, which in German is *Rothschild*. He was not at that time a man of large fortune. The French armies were then invading Germany, and a German prince, fearing that the enemy would seize his large property in jewels and gold

if he should leave it, and not daring to take it with him in his flight, finally bethought him of this money-lender. The Jew was reluctant to undertake the trust, but finally consented, and the vast fortune was left in his hands, without a scrap of writing to show that he was responsible for it. He carefully buried the treasure in his garden, but left his own money in its usual place. When the French came they seized the money of the Jew, but did not discover that of the prince. After they left, Rothschild (so called from his well-known sign) used some of the prince's money so judiciously as to gain considerable profits from it. When the wars were ended the prince returned to Frankfort, and at once visited the banker. It was with fear and trembling that he asked for his treasure, not only because the enemy might have taken it, but also because he feared that even if it had escaped that danger the honesty of the Jew would not have been proof against the great temptation to appropriate the millions so wholly confided to him. What was the prince's delight, however, to hear from the banker that all the fortune was safe. Moreover, Rothschild proposed to pay him five per cent. for its use, although his own property had been intentionally sacrificed so that the French would not suspect the greater hoard. The overjoyed prince fully recompensed the banker for his losses, and thereafter was never tired of sounding the praises of the honest Jew of Frankfort. The latter in time, amassed a huge fortune, largely from loans to governments which has been greatly increased since by his descendants.

13. Here is a case in which an honest man was a better safeguard for treasure than stone walls and steel locks.

14. Care of the Helpless Poor.—There is a great deal of nonsense in calling people “poor.” Of course some have much more money, much finer houses, many more luxuries, than others. But whether one is considered poor or rich depends entirely on the point of view. Some years ago a group of mine-owners in Colorado were chatting in a Washington hotel. All of them were millionaires. The talk fell on a certain renowned general of the civil war, whose property was estimated at five or six hundred thousand dollars. “Ah!” said one of the party, “I suppose he really is quite as happy as if he were rich.” To the man with millions the other man with thousands seemed poor. But most people would think such a man rich.

15. The fact is that no one is really poor if he is able and willing to earn an honest living, and has the chance to do it. He is independent, and where there is independence there is no actual poverty.

16. But there are always some people who have no property, and who, for one reason or another, cannot get a living. Perhaps they are broken down in health—perhaps they are too old and feeble to work. In that case, if they have friends who can take care of them, they will not suffer. But if they have no one to care for them they will simply starve if left to themselves. This cannot be permitted. So the people of each county provide a home of some sort for the destitute. It is usually plain. It should always be comfortable. The inmates, we must remember, are not criminals. They are merely unfortunate. And it is the duty of the public to care for them.

17. Tramps.—There are always some men who are able

to work but prefer to be idle. If they have no property to support them they can live only by begging or stealing. Sometimes such men spend their time wandering about the country, sleeping in barns or under haystacks, and begging for money and food and clothes. These wretched beings are called "tramps." It is a great pity to see a man so low down as these. If they would work they could generally get an honest living. But they prefer their worthless, vagabond life to one of steady industry. They deserve little sympathy and less help, for they are unworthy of either. The county homes for the poor are not intended for tramps.

18. Sometimes a man has been known to excuse an act of dishonesty by saying, "The world owes me a living. If I can't get it in one way I must in another." But that is pure nonsense. The world owes no man a living unless he earns it. If one is so unfortunate that he cannot provide for himself at all, the community will take care of him. But any man who can work and prefers to be idle and to depend on those who do work is, after all, only a sort of tramp. He is of no manner of use to the world.

19. Towns.—In some states the counties are divided into still smaller neighborhoods, called *towns*. This neighborhood is so small that the people can come together without much difficulty to decide public matters. At these town meetings the people often vote to build a bridge, to repair a road, or something of that sort. They also choose the town officers, generally for the term of one year, and decide how much money shall be used for town purposes.

20. Villages.—In the country the farm-houses are generally quite far apart. But when a number of houses are built rather close together, so as to form a community of perhaps a few hundred people, the place is called a *village*. The houses are usually not farm-houses. There are generally one or more stores, blacksmith shops, churches, school-houses, with perhaps doctors, dressmakers, milliners, a post-office. The larger the village the more of these will be found.

21. Of course villages are not all of the same size. Some are quite large, having even thousands of people.

22. A village has a government of its own, chosen by the people. What that government is, and what are its duties, we shall consider in another chapter.

23. Cities.—A large number of people living rather near together is called a *city*. In a city there are streets in place of country roads. These streets are often paved with stone or brick or wooden blocks. There are many stores, churches, and school-houses, and usually a number of manufactures.

24. A city has a government of its own, which makes laws and sees that they are obeyed, and attends to all manner of public business.

25. As a city has a rather large number of people, it is usually divided for convenience into small neighborhoods, called *wards*. Each ward has some public officers chosen by the people. The wards are numbered.

26. Local Self-Government.—We see that each part of our republic, whether state, county, city, or village, has a government of its own, chosen by the people. All these

different kinds of government get along without interfering with one another because each merely minds its own business. The state government must not make any laws which interfere with the national laws. The governments of the counties, cities, and villages must not interfere with the state laws. But anything which concerns nobody but a particular city is left altogether to that city. For example, the people of Chicago may want to pave one of their streets with stone. Well, what does it matter to anybody outside the city? The city of Chicago pays for it, and nobody else cares. So the state or the county gives no attention to it, and the city does what it pleases. That is what we call "local self-government," or "home rule." Each particular neighborhood is left free to manage its own affairs as it pleases.

27. The Local Divisions Are Not Our Country.—Any man who has been born and brought up in a particular part of the republic—in Massachusetts or Pennsylvania or Virginia or California—naturally has an affection for his own state or his own city or his own county. That is his immediate home. The associations of his life gather around it. There are his friends and neighbors. There he does his work. He is proud of his own state or city, and is anxious for its added prosperity.

28. But, after all, our country—the nation of which the flag is the symbol—is the whole republic. Our first duty as citizens is to the republic. To be sure, unless we do our duty also as citizens in our home neighborhood, we shall very surely be bad citizens of the republic. But local jealousies and prejudice are entirely wrong for American

patriots. The fact is that excellent people are found in every section of the land. And a real patriot is pleased when he hears of the prosperity of any portion of our country.

29. A distinguished citizen of Massachusetts, Mr. Robert C. Winthrop, put this so eloquently in one of his speeches that it is worth every man's while to read it. Mr. Winthrop was educated at Harvard College, studied law with Daniel Webster, was a member of congress and United States senator from Massachusetts, and won wide reputation as a scholar and orator. He died in 1894.

The Patriot Traveller in a Foreign Land

ROBERT C. WINTHROP

IT is, without all question, my friends, one of the best influences of a sojourn in foreign lands, upon a heart which is not insensible to the influences of patriotism, that one forgets for a time, or remembers only with disgust and loathing, the contentions and controversies which so often alienate and embitter us at home. There is no room on that little map of his country which every patriot bears abroad with him, photographed on his heart,—there is no room on that magical miniature map for territorial divisions or sectional boundaries. Large enough to reflect and reproduce the image and outlines of the whole Union, it repels all impression of the petty topographical features which belong to science and the schools. Still more does it repel the miserable seams and scratches by which sectional politicians have sought to illustrate their odious distinctions and comparisons. And so, the patriot traveller in foreign lands, with that chart impressed in lines of light and love on his memory, looks back on his country only as a whole. He learns

to love it more than ever as a whole. He accustoms himself to think kindly of it, and to speak kindly of it, as a whole ; and he comes home ready to defend it as a whole, alike from the invasion of hostile armies or the assaults of slanderous pens and tongues. He grasps the hand of an American abroad as the hand of a brother, without stopping to inquire whether he hails from Massachusetts or from South Carolina, from Maine or Louisiana, from Vermont or Virginia. It is enough that his passport bears the same broad seal, the same national emblem, with his own. And every time his own passport is inspected, every time he enters a new dominion or crosses a new frontier, every time he is delayed at the custom-house, or questioned by a policeman, or challenged by a sentinel, every time he is perplexed by a new language, or puzzled by a new variety of coinage or currency,—he thanks his God with fresh fervency that through all the length and breadth of that land, beyond the swelling floods, which he is privileged and proud to call his own land, there is a common language, a common currency, a common Constitution, common laws and liberties, a common inheritance of glory from the past, and, if it be only true to itself, a common destiny of glory for the future !

CHAPTER IX

The Law-Makers

1. Congress.—The United States has one legislature for the nation and one for each state.

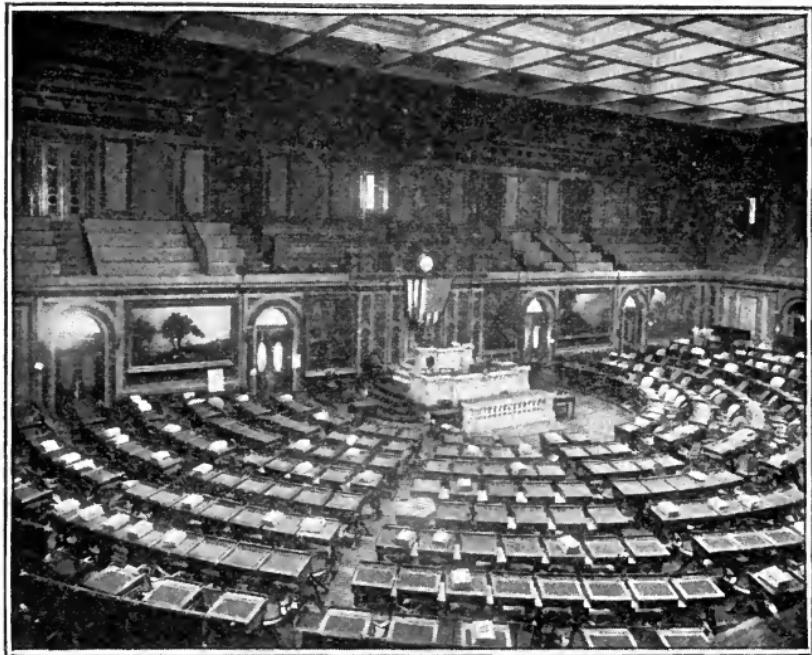
2. The national law-making body is called *congress* (p. 56), and meets every year in the city of Washington. The building in which the meetings are held is the capitol—a magnificent structure of freestone and marble.

3. The congress consists of two separate bodies, one called the *senate* and the other the *house of representatives*. Each has a large and beautiful hall in the capitol for its meetings.

4. The senate has now ninety members, two from each state. The state legislature chooses the senators. The term of office is six years. But the senators do not all finish their terms at the same time. If they did, once each six years there would be an entirely new senate elected. Things are arranged in such a way, however, that about one-third of the senators finish their terms and new ones are chosen in their place every two years.

5. Some of the most famous statesmen have been senators. John Quincy Adams, Daniel Webster, and Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts; Henry Clay, of Kentucky; John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, and William H. Seward, of New York, are a few of the most eminent.

6. The house of representatives has now 357 members. They are distributed among the states according to the number of people, the most populous states having the largest number, but every state having at least one. The state of New York has thirty-four. Delaware, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, North Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming have one each. The representatives are elected by the people. Each



CHAMBER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES IN THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON

state which has more than one is divided into as many districts as it has representatives, and the people of each district make their choice in November every other year. These districts are numbered. The term of office is two years. Thus each second year an entirely new house is chosen. The election comes in November.

7. A representative is often called a *congressman*, or a

member of congress. A member of the senate is called a *senator*.

8. Congress meets in December every year, and remains at work, “in session,” until the members have finished all the law-making they wish. Then the congress “adjourns”—that is, ends the session, and the members go home.

9. Each house has to have a chairman, whose duty it is to keep order. The presiding officer of the senate is the vice-president of the United States (Chap. X, § 15). The representatives elect their own chairman, who is called the *speaker*. Did you ever attend a debating society, or a public meeting of any sort? If so, you must have noticed that some one had to preside. He was called perhaps the “chairman” or the “president” of the meeting. In congress it is just the same, only a new chairman is not chosen each day. The speaker presides in the lower house at every meeting of the two years, and the vice-president may preside in the senate for four years.

10. We have seen (in Chap. IV) how congress makes laws. These laws, when made, must be obeyed by everybody in the republic, and the state legislatures must make no laws which interfere with the laws of congress.

11. **The Senate.**—The senate has some other duties besides helping the house of representatives to make laws.

12. By the Constitution the president of the United States has the power to make treaties with foreign nations. A treaty is merely an agreement—what business men call a “contract.” The United States has many treaties with the principal nations of the world. For example, in 1783, at the end of the revolutionary war, Great Britain made a

treaty with the United States in which agreements were made about the boundaries between Canada and the new republic, about the right of Americans to catch fish near the British island of Newfoundland, and about other matters. Now, under the Constitution no treaty which the president may make is binding unless the senate approves it. So every such treaty the president sends to the senate,



THE SENATE CHAMBER IN THE CAPITOL AT WASHINGTON

and they discuss it, and then take a vote on the question of approval.

13. The president also, by the Constitution, has the right to appoint many officers of the United States. But he can make no such appointment, except a temporary one, unless the senate approves.

14. The State Legislatures.—Each of the forty-five

states also has a legislature, which, like congress, consists of two houses. The state legislature is sometimes called by some special name—in Illinois it is *the general assembly*—but usually it is simply *the legislature*. The upper house is always called the *senate*, like the upper house of congress. The lower house has different names. In Maryland it is the *house of delegates*, in New York it is the *assembly*, in Virginia it is the *house of burgesses*. In most states, however, it is called by the same name as in congress—the *house of representatives*.

15. The members of each house of the state legislature are elected by the people. The state is divided into as many senate districts as there are senators, and usually also into as many representative districts as there are representatives. The people of each senate district choose a senator, and the people of each representative district choose a representative.

16. In Illinois there are fifty-one senate districts and no representative districts. The people of each senate district choose one senator and three representatives. Thus the Illinois legislature has fifty-one senators and one hundred fifty-three representatives. The number of senators and members of the lower house differs in the different states. The same is true about the term of office. But there are always fewer senators than members of the lower house, and in most of the states the senators are elected for a longer term.

17. In some states the legislature meets every year, in others it meets only once in two years.

18. The presiding officer of the state senate is the lieu-

tenant-governor,* if the state has one (Chap. XII). If not, then the senators elect their chairman. The lower house always elects its own speaker.

19. Each state has a constitution, just as has the United States. And the state constitution tells what the legislature may and may not do. So the law-makers are not free to do as they please. They must make no law which interferes with the Constitution of the United States, or with a law of congress, or with the state constitution. But yet the state legislatures make a very large number of laws every time they meet. Perhaps it would be quite as well if they made fewer.

20. The County Law-Makers.—Believing, as we do, that home rule, or local self-government, is a good thing, our state legislatures leave purely local matters, as far as possible, for the people of each smaller neighborhood to decide as they please. So each county has some sort of law-making body, usually called a *board*. If the county is divided into towns, the people of each town may choose a *supervisor*, and all the supervisors together form the county board. If the county is not divided into towns, and in some states even if it is, the county board consists of a few men, usually three, called *commissioners*, elected by the people of the whole county. In some states there is no county board at all.

21. The business done by a county board is different in different states. They may allow a toll road or a toll bridge to be built; they provide for such county buildings as are needed—a jail, for instance, and offices for the various

* In Massachusetts the president of the senate is elected.

county officers—and they decide what tax the people shall pay in order to provide for doing the county business.

22. Village and City Law-Makers.—A village is another neighborhood which is allowed to make its own local laws. The people of the village usually elect a “board”—sometimes called “trustees”—to manage village business. And these trustees make such rules—usually called “ordinances”—as they think proper. But ordinances are really laws. People must obey them, just as they must obey the laws made by the state legislature.

23. A city, too, has a law-making body—the “council” it is usually called—whose members are often known as “aldermen.” In some cities the city legislature is a double body, like congress and the state legislatures. In others there is but one house. Often the members are chosen from the wards. In the city of Chicago, for example, the “common council” consists of sixty-eight aldermen, two being chosen by the people of each ward.

24. The city council makes laws—“ordinances” they are called—about all manner of things not covered by the laws of the state and the nation.

CHAPTER X

How Laws Are Enforced

1. Policemen.—If you live in a city, or have visited a city, you have often seen a policeman. His blue uniform and his club are familiar sights in the streets. What is his business? Why, merely to see that people do not break the laws. There are laws forbidding stealing, setting fire to houses, driving too rapidly in crowded streets, and many other things. The policeman looks out for offenders against the laws, and if he finds a man doing an unlawful act, arrests him and takes him to the station house.

2. In a village or a farming neighborhood a police force is not necessary. But the village “constable” is an officer who arrests village law-breakers, and takes them to the “lock up” for safe-keeping. And the county “sheriff” and his deputies in like manner may make arrests anywhere in a county.

3. So we see that the policeman, the constable, and the sheriff are all officers with the same duties. They try to prevent law-breaking and they arrest law-breakers. Any one of these officials is often familiarly called an “officer.”

4. Some Other Public Officers.—But there is another kind of public officer. In a city the postman is a figure often seen as he hurries on his rounds, clad in blue-gray

uniform and carrying a leather sack of mail slung over his shoulder. In villages the postman is seldom found, but every one knows the "postmaster," who takes care of the mail. The village post-office is often in a store, and people gather there to get their letters and papers when the mail comes. And both in city and village, as well as in rural districts, the public-school teacher is busy everywhere in the republic.

5. The postman, the postmaster, and the public-school teacher are all public officers. But, unlike the policeman and the sheriff, their duty is not to prevent wrong-doing and arrest wrong-doers. It is to do work for the public, but of quite another kind—work very important for the public convenience and the public intelligence.

6. We see, then, that there are two kinds of laws which are made by our law-makers. One kind, like the law forbidding stealing, is a set of rules for the conduct of people, telling what things must not be done. And when the law-makers have made such laws, one part of the administration is busy seeing to it that people obey, or are punished if they disobey. The other kind of laws provides for doing the public business—such things as carrying the mail, teaching school, and gathering and distributing the money which it takes to carry on the government.

7. This last part of the public business is very important. Money has to be had to pay the many public servants. This money the people pay to the government. These payments are called "taxes." Laws are made telling who shall pay taxes and how much, and for what purposes the money shall be used. And many public officers are busy

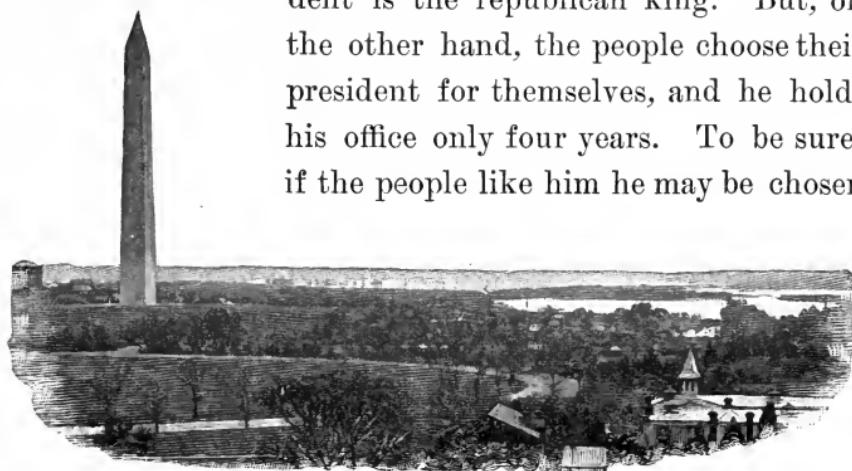
collecting the taxes and paying out the money according to law.

8. All these officers of every kind who are busy carrying out the laws belong to the government and to what is called its "administrative" branch.

9. **The President.**—The head of the federal administration is the president of the United States.

10. The president of a republic like ours fills very nearly the place of a king or emperor in a monarchy. The presi-

dent is the republican king. But, on the other hand, the people choose their president for themselves, and he holds his office only four years. To be sure, if the people like him he may be chosen



THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT

This stately memorial of the first president is an imposing obelisk of white marble and granite, five hundred feet high and fifty-five feet square at the base, standing near the Potomac, not far from the White House, in the city of Washington. The walls are fifteen feet thick, thus leaving a great hollow within, through which an elevator takes passengers to the top. The corner-stone was laid in 1848, but the great work was not completed until 1885. The venerable Robert C. Winthrop, of Massachusetts, who delivered the oration at the laying of the corner-stone, performed the same part at the dedication of the monument in 1885. We quote a few sentences from Winthrop's oration in 1848: "Lay the corner-stone of a monument which shall adequately bespeak the gratitude of the whole American people to the illustrious Father of his Country. Build it to the skies; you cannot outreach the loftiness of his principles! Found it upon the massive and eternal rock; you cannot make it more enduring than his fame! Construct it of the peerless Parian marble; you cannot make it purer than his life! Exhaust upon it the rules and principles of ancient and modern art; you cannot make it more proportionate than his character!"

again for another four years, as indeed several of our presidents have been.

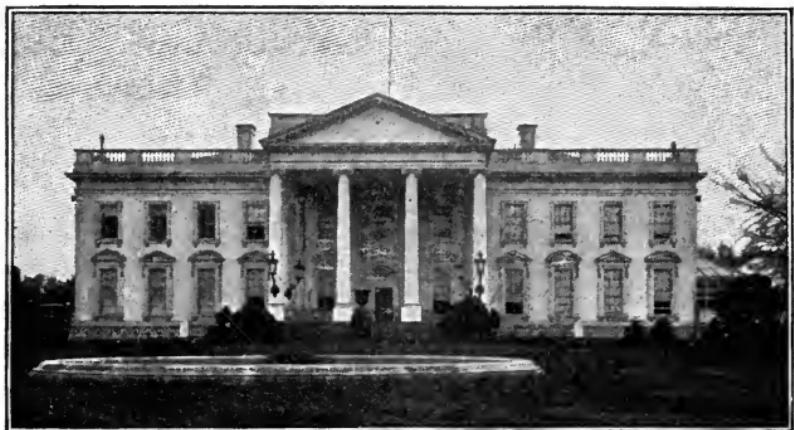
11. The first president was George Washington, the famous and beloved general of the revolutionary armies. He was chosen for a second term, and would have been chosen a third time but that he refused. He was one of the wisest and best presidents we have had. Since his time no president has been elected more than twice.

12. In electing a president the people do not vote for him by name. In each state the people vote for a number of men as "electors." And the electors chosen in this way in the various states select the president. But, in fact, the electors of each state always know whom the people of that state want for president, and are very careful to vote for him and for no one else. Each state has as many electors as it has members of both houses of congress. Thus no state has less than three electors. New York has thirty-six. At present all the states together have four hundred forty-seven electors, so that two hundred twenty-four of them must vote for the same candidate in order to elect him.

13. The president has great power. He appoints many of the public officers, all of the most important ones. He commands the national soldiers and the sailors of the national warships. His salary is \$50,000 a year, and the nation furnishes him a residence at the city of Washington—the "White House."

14. The president's four-year term of office begins on the fourth of March. On that day there are very elaborate ceremonies at Washington. The new president, accom-

panied by the president whose term is ending, goes in procession, escorted by military and with martial music, to the magnificent marble capitol, in which the congress meets. Standing in the open air on the great eastern portico, in presence of the principal officers of the government, the ministers representing foreign nations, a brilliant group of



THE PRESIDENT'S HOUSE AT WASHINGTON

This simple and beautiful building, commonly called the "White House," is constructed of Virginia freestone. President Washington himself selected the site, laid the corner-stone (October 13, 1792), and lived to see the completed edifice. It is said that with his wife he walked through the rooms but a few days before his death, in 1799. President John Adams was its first occupant, in 1800. In 1814 the house was burned by the British, and only the walls were left standing. When rebuilt, the stone was painted white, to conceal the marks of fire. The White House is the residence of the president and his family, and also contains his office.

invited guests, and an immense multitude which throngs every foot of ground in sight, the new president takes the oath of office. He solemnly swears to defend the Constitution of the United States and faithfully to perform his duties. Then the new president delivers to the great audience an address, explaining how he thinks the government ought to be managed. The procession then

escorts the new president to his home in the White House. These ceremonies are called the *inauguration* of the president.

15. The Vice-President.—If the president should die before the four years of his term should be ended, it would leave the federal administration without a head. To have another election so soon would be troublesome and expensive. So the Constitution provides that the electors, at the same time they elect a president, shall also choose another man as *vice-president* of the United States. The vice-president must not live in the same state as the president. His duty is merely to be chairman of the senate. But in case the president dies, or in any other way there should be no president, the vice-president at once ceases to preside in the senate and performs the duties of president.

16. Four times in our history a president has died in office, and the vice-president has succeeded to the chief place. In 1841 William Henry Harrison became president. General Harrison was an old man who had made a brilliant record as a leader of the American armies in war against the Indians, and in the second war with Great Britain, in 1812. Only one month after the inauguration President Harrison died. The vice-president was John Tyler, of Virginia, who thus became president.

17. The second president to die was Zachary Taylor, who also had been a gallant soldier. General Taylor was inaugurated in 1849, and died in 1850. He was succeeded by Vice-President Millard Fillmore, of New York.

18. Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, became president in March, 1861. Almost immediately after his inaugura-



GENERAL ULYSSES S. GRANT

U. S. Grant was born in Ohio in 1822. He was educated at West Point, and served several years in the army as lieutenant and captain. In 1854 he resigned his commission to engage in business. When the civil war broke out, in 1861, he was made colonel of an Illinois regiment. He soon proved an able commander, winning many victories, and was promoted repeatedly, until in 1864 he was made commander of all the armies of the United States. It was to him that General Lee surrendered in 1865. In 1868 General Grant was elected president of the United States, and he was re-elected in 1872. He died in 1885. A fine monument has been erected to his memory in the City of New York.

tion the republic became involved in a great civil war. Ten states, dissatisfied with the Union, withdrew and formed a new republic of their own. But President Lincoln, supported by the rest of the states, denied the right of any state to leave the Union. Armies were formed on both sides, and, as was said, a terrible war resulted—a war which lasted for four years. Before it was ended Mr. Lincoln was elected for a second term, and was inaugurated in March, 1865. Within a few weeks the war came to an end by the victory of the national armies. And amid the excitement a fanatical sympathizer with the losing side assassinated

the president. The vice-president was Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee, who then became president.

19. A second president to be murdered, and the fourth to die while in office, was James A. Garfield. Mr. Garfield



From "Leslie's Weekly."

THE GRANT MONUMENT AS IT NOW APPEARS

was inaugurated as president in March, 1881. A few months afterwards he was shot by a half-crazy office-seeker. The president lingered for some weeks. As soon as he died, the vice-president, Chester A. Arthur, of New York, took the oath of office as president.

20. Thus four times in our history a president has died, twice, sad to say, by the hand of an assassin. So four times a vice-president has become president.

21. If the president and vice-president should both die, the laws provide that the secretary of state (p. 137) should

succeed to the office. If he also should die, the secretary of the treasury acts as president, and thus the office would pass on through the president's cabinet in case of successive deaths (p. 139).

22. The Battle of Gettysburg.—

One of the greatest battles of the civil war was that at Gettysburg, in the state of Pennsylvania, in July, 1863. The Confederate army, commanded by Gen-

ROBERT E. LEE

General Lee was born in Virginia in 1807. He was an officer in the United States army, but when Virginia seceded he resigned his commission and cast in his fortunes with his native state and the South. Through most of the civil war he commanded the Confederate armies, winning high fame as an able general and as a man of pure and earnest character. After the war he became president of Washington College, at Lexington, Virginia. Here he died in 1870.

eral Robert E. Lee, had crossed the Potomac River and was invading the northern states. The Union army, under General George G. Meade, followed close after, and at Gettysburg Lee turned on his enemy and attempted to destroy him. The battle raged fiercely for three days,



being fought on both sides with determined courage. The Confederates failed in their attack, and were compelled to retreat to Virginia. The many thousands of Union soldiers who were killed were buried in a national cemetery on the field of battle, and in November, 1863, this cemetery was formally dedicated to its sacred purpose. A part of the ceremonies was an address by the president of the United States, Abraham Lincoln. This brief but most eloquent speech of the great war president follows in full :

Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, November 19, 1863

FOURSCORE and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us, that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave

the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain ; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth.



SIGNAL CORPS.—ABLE SEAMAN.—NAVAL RESERVE
UNITED STATES SAILORS.

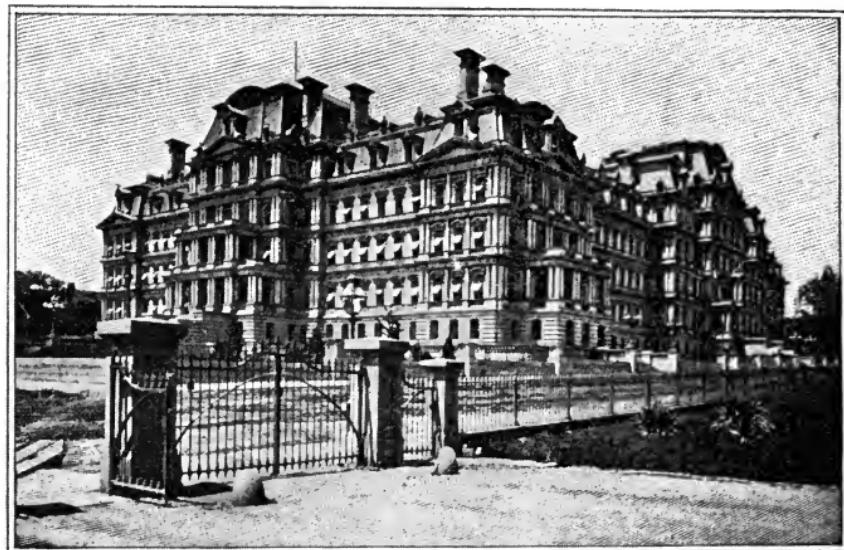
CHAPTER XI

The President's Cabinet

1. Cabinet Officers.—The officers who, under the president, carry on the work of the national administration are grouped in *departments*, at the head of each of which is a great officer, usually called a *secretary*. There are eight of these departments, and the eight heads form the president's "cabinet." Regular meetings of the cabinet are held with the president, at which the most important business is talked over. The president is not obliged to act as the cabinet advises, but it is very useful for him to have such a body of men with whom to consult. The members of the cabinet are appointed by the president, and usually resign their offices when his term is ended. So each president has a cabinet of his own selection. To be sure, the senate has the right to be consulted in the appointment of cabinet officers. But the president's nominations are rarely disapproved. Each of the eight departments has charge of important affairs.

2. The Department of State.—The government of the United States often has to send messages to the government of France or Great Britain or Germany or some other country, and quite as often receives messages from some foreign government. In this way business is going on continually among the governments of all the nations.

The department of our government which does this branch of the public business is the *department of state*, and its head is the *secretary of state*. This secretary has a number of assistants at Washington. But, besides these, there are agents in foreign countries. In each foreign capital is a gentleman who is known as *minister*, or *ambassador*, of the



NATIONAL OFFICES BUILDING AT WASHINGTON—STATE, WAR, AND NAVY
DEPARTMENTS

This vast but not very beautiful building contains the offices of the secretaries above named and of their numerous assistants. It is fire-proof, as its archives are of priceless value. Here may be seen the original Declaration of Independence, the original Constitution of the United States, the sword of Washington, a silver set presented to Captain Isaac Hull by citizens of Philadelphia in 1812 in honor of his capture of the Guerrière, and many other deeply interesting relics.

United States. He discusses the business of the United States with the government of the country in which he lives, keeps up a regular correspondence with the secretary of state at Washington, giving information and receiving instructions. At public ceremonies the ministers of the various nations are always invited and treated with great

respect. The ministers of European nations on such occasions are accustomed to wear an elaborate uniform, brilliant in colors and glittering with gold. The American ministers, however, usually dress in plain black, as becomes representatives of a republic.

3. In nearly every important foreign city lives another agent of the state department, called a *consul*. He looks out for the business interests of American merchants and sailors. If you should be traveling in Europe or South America and should be in difficulty, the American consul would be the one to whom to apply for assistance. He would not let one of his countrymen be treated badly.

4. Foreign nations, in like manner, have at Washington ambassadors or ministers, who carry on their business with our government through the secretary of state. Foreign consuls, too, are found in all our principal cities.

5. **The War Department.**—Every nation in the world has an army. The number of soldiers in different countries varies, to be sure. France and Germany have each a half million men always under arms, while the United States has only about 25,000.

6. Why is it necessary to keep soldiers? Merely because nations cannot always settle their disputes peaceably. If two men cannot agree on a question of business, they can have the matter decided by a court of law. And whatever the court may decide must be obeyed. If the two disputants should try to settle their quarrel by a fight, they would be very apt to find themselves in jail. But nations unfortunately have no such means of keeping order and of

determining justice. So each nation has to protect itself. And the army is the means of national defense.

7. Besides this, there are sometimes riots and insurrections which the police are not able to put down. Then the soldiers must give their help.

8. So an army is necessary for the protection of a nation against attack from abroad, and also to keep order—in other words, to see to it that the laws are obeyed at home.

9. The army of the United States is small, partly because we have little fear of being attacked and partly because each state also keeps soldiers. The state soldiers are usually called the “national guard.” We shall speak about them later.

10. Our republic has had several wars, in which the army was very necessary. As you will remember, it was by the war of the revolution that we won our independence from England, and so became a free republic. In that war—a war which lasted eight years—British armies invaded our country, but after many bloody battles they were finally driven away. General George Washington commanded the American soldiers throughout this war, and he was aided by French soldiers who came across the ocean to help us.

11. In 1812 we had a second war with England, which lasted two years.

12. In 1846 we most unfortunately were drawn into a war with our sister republic, Mexico. This also lasted two years. The American armies invaded Mexico, won many battles, and thus compelled the Mexicans, in making peace, to give up a large territory to the United States.

13. In 1861, saddest of all, we had a war among ourselves—a civil war. Several of the southern states, as we have seen (p. 131), being dissatisfied with the Union, attempted to withdraw from it and to form a new republic, which they called the Confederate States of America. But the rest of the people refused to permit the old Union to be destroyed. Large armies were formed on both sides, and many desperate battles were fought. At length, after four years of war, the Union armies were victorious.

14. The management of an army, even in time of peace, takes much time and work. The president of the United States is by the Constitution the chief commander of the army. But the details of its management are left to one of the cabinet, the secretary of war. He is the head of the *war department*, which includes a number of assistants and clerks.

15. The war department conducts a military school at West Point, on the Hudson River. Each member of the national house of representatives has the privilege of naming one boy as a candidate for admission to the military academy, and a few are named by the president.* These candidates, however, have to pass an examination, both as to their knowledge and as to their bodily health and strength, before they can become “cadets,” as the students at West Point are called. Those who succeed in passing through the four years of severe study required in the academy, are appointed to the rank of second lieutenant in the army. The military academy is an excellent school,

* The law requires that appointments be made by the president of the United States. But the president permits representatives to name candidates, and in many districts a competitive examination is held, the boy who does the best being nominated.

and keeps our army supplied with very well trained officers.

16. Since the close of the civil war the active duty of the army has consisted mostly in keeping the Indians in order. We shall have more to say of this when we come to speak of the American Indians.

17. Three War Poems.—Mrs. Julia Ward Howe once visited the camps of the Union army in Virginia during the civil war, and on her return wrote the poem known as the “Battle Hymn of the Republic.” Mrs. Howe has been active through many years as an author and lecturer. Perhaps this is her best known poem.

18. Lord Byron, a famous English poet, who translated the “Greek War Song,” sympathized so warmly with the Greeks in their war of independence against the tyrannical Turks that he not only gave them money, but went in person to share in the war. He died in Greece in 1824, before the war was ended.

19. Theodore O’Hara, an American soldier in the Mexican war, wrote “The Bivouac of the Dead” in 1847, for the dedication of a cemetery devoted to the Kentuckians who fell at the battle of Buena Vista.

20. These three poems are grouped here as expressing different phases of emotion aroused by the stern realities of war.

Battle Hymn of the Republic

JULIA WARD HOWE

MINE eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord :
He is trampling out the vintage where the grapes of wrath are
stored ;
He hath loosed the fateful lightning of His terrible swift sword :
His truth is marching on.

I have seen Him in the watch-fires of a hundred circling camps ;
They have builded Him an altar in the evening dews and
damps ;
I can read His righteous sentence by the dim and flaring lamps :
His day is marching on.

I have read a fiery gospel, writ in burnished rows of steel :
“ As ye deal with My contemners, so My grace with you shall
deal ; ”
Let the Hero, born of woman, crush the serpent with his heel,
Since God is marching on.”

He has sounded forth the trumpet that shall never call retreat ;
He is sifting out the hearts of men before His judgment-seat :
Oh ! be swift, my soul, to answer Him ! be jubilant, my feet !
Our God is marching on.

In the beauty of the lilies Christ was born across the sea,
With a glory in His bosom that transfigures you and me :
As He died to make men holy, let us die to make men free,
While God is marching on.

A Greek War Song

Translated from the Greek by Lord Byron

SONS of the Greeks, arise !
 The glorious hour 's gone forth,
 And, worthy of such ties,
 Display who gave us birth.

CHORUS

Sons of Greeks ! let us go
 In arms against the foe
 Till their hated blood shall flow
 In a river past our feet.

Then manfully despising
 The Turkish tyrant's yoke,
 Let your country see you rising,
 And all her chains are broke,
 Brave shades of chiefs and sages,
 Behold the coming strife !
 Hellenes of past ages,
 Oh, start again to life !
 At the sound of my trumpet, breaking
 Your sleep, oh, join with me !
 And the seven hilled city * seeking,
 Fight, conquer, till we're free.

CHORUS

Sparta, Sparta, why in slumbers
 Lethargic dost thou lie ?
 Awake, and join thy numbers
 With Athens, old ally !

* Constantinople.

Leonidas recalling,
 That chief of ancient song,
 Who saved thee once from falling,
 The terrible ! the strong !
 Who made that bold diversion
 In old Thermopylæ,
 And warring with the Persian
 To keep his country free ;
 With his three hundred waging
 The battle, long he stood,
 And like a lion raging,
 Expired in seas of blood.

CHORUS

The Bivouac of the Dead

THEODORE O'HARA

THE muffled drum's sad roll has beat
 The soldier's last tattoo ;
 No more on life's parade shall meet
 That brave and fallen few.
 On Fame's eternal camping-ground
 Their silent tents are spread,
 And Glory guards, with solemn round,
 The bivouac of the dead.

No rumor of the foe's advance
 Now swells upon the wind ;
 No troubled thought at midnight haunts
 Of loved ones left behind ;

No vision of the morrow's strife
The warrior's dream alarms ;
No braying horn nor screaming fife
At dawn shall call to arms.

Their shivered swords are red with rust,
Their plumèd heads are bowed ;
Their haughty banner, trailed in dust,
Is now their martial shroud.
And plenteous funeral tears have washed
The red stains from each brow,
And the proud forms, by battle gashed,
Are free from anguish now.

The neighing troop, the flashing blade,
The bugle's stirring blast,
The charge, the dreadful cannonade,
The din and shout, are past ;
No war's wild note nor glory's peal
Shall thrill with fierce delight
Those breasts that nevermore may feel
The rapture of the fight.

Like the fierce northern hurricane
That sweeps his great plateau,
Flushed with the triumph yet to gain,
Came down the serried foe.
Who heard the thunder of the fray
Break o'er the field beneath,
Knew well the watchword of that day
Was "Victory or death."

Long had the doubtful conflict raged
O'er all that stricken plain,
For never fiercer fight had waged
 The vengeful blood of Spain ;
And still the storm of battle blew,
 Still swelled the gory tide ;
Not long, our stout old chieftain knew,
 Such odds his strength could bide.

'Twas in that hour his stern command
 Called to a martyr's grave
The flower of his beloved land,
 The nation's flag to save.
By rivers of their fathers' gore
 His first-born laurels grew,
And well he deemed the sons would pour
 Their lives for glory too.

Full many a norther's breath has swept
 O'er Angostura's plain—
And long the pitying sky has wept
 Above its mouldered slain.
The raven's scream, or eagle's flight,
 Or shepherd's pensive lay,
Alone awakes each sullen height
 That frowned o'er that dread fray.

Sons of the Dark and Bloody Ground,
 Ye must not slumber there,
Where stranger steps and tongues resound
 Along the heedless air.

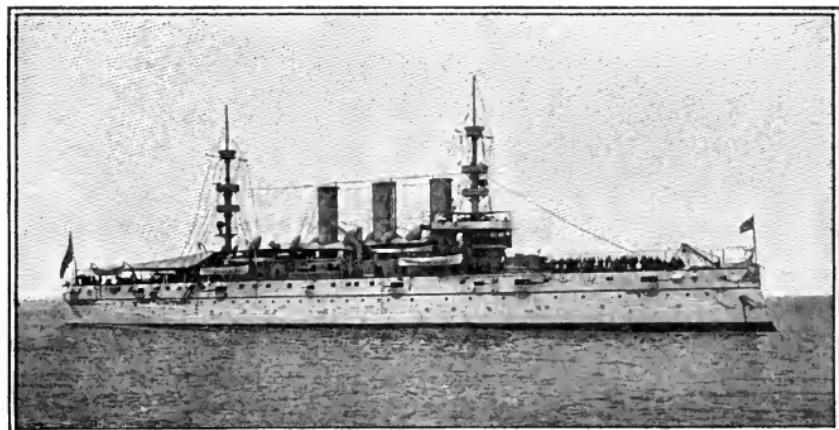
Your own proud land's heroic soil
Shall be your fitter grave ;
She claims from war his richest spoil—
The ashes of her brave.

Thus 'neath their parent turf they rest,
Far from the gory field,
Borne to a Spartan mother's breast
On many a bloody shield ;
The sunshine of their native sky
Smiles sadly on them here,
And kindred eyes and hearts watch by
The heroes' sepulchre.

Rest on, embalmed and sainted dead !
Dear as the blood ye gave,
No impious footstep here shall tread
The herbage of your grave ;
Nor shall your glory be forgot
While Fame her record keeps,
Or Honor points the hallowed spot
Where Valor proudly sleeps.

Yon marble minstrel's voiceless stone
In deathless song shall tell,
When many a vanished age hath flown
The story how ye fell ;
Nor wreck, nor change, nor winter's blight,
Nor Time's remorseless doom,
Shall dim one ray of glory's light
That gilds your deathless tomb.

21. The Navy Department.—A second branch of the national defense is the navy. A nation which, like the United States, has a long seacoast and many seaports, would in time of war be in danger of attack by armed ships. To be sure, forts are built on the shore for the purpose of defense against such attacks. But it has been found that forts alone are not enough. Armed ships are



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THE U. S. CRUISER NEW YORK

The new navy is very different from the old wooden sailing ships which fought the war of 1812. Naval vessels now are propelled by steam, are built of steel, heavily armored so as not easily to be pierced by shot, and are provided with guns of tremendous power.

best met by other armed ships. Besides, if American citizens should be maltreated in some foreign country, or if American ships should be in danger in distant seas, it would be necessary to send ships of war to their defense.

22. It was just such troubles which led to the beginning of our navy. A hundred years ago the people who lived on the south shore of the Mediterranean Sea were pirates. They sailed from the harbors of Tripoli and Tunis and

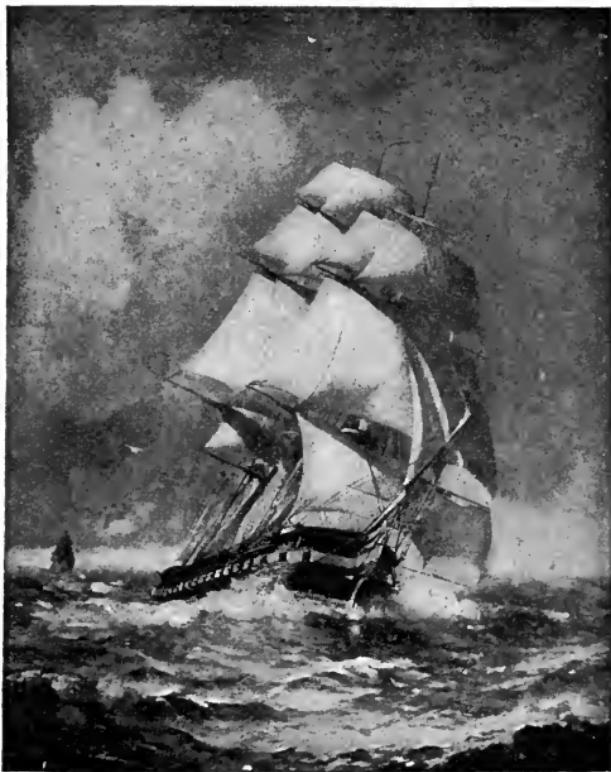
Algiers, and captured the merchant ships of any nation. These ships, with their cargoes, were kept by the pirates, and the unfortunate crews were made slaves. Many nations paid large sums of money to the rulers of these savage countries in order to save their ships and sailors from such a fate. In 1794 our government thought that it would not be possible for the United States to make a suitable arrangement of this kind, and so it was decided to build ships of war so as to be able to compel the pirates to let our merchant ships alone.

23. Before the ships were ready, however, arrangements were made by which we paid a great amount of money to the pirates, and they agreed not to capture American ships. But in a few years the Tripolitans broke the agreement, and again attacked our peaceful vessels. Then our government sent the new ships of war to the Mediterranean with orders to compel the Tripolitans to keep the peace. The American vessels were manned by as gallant a body of mariners as ever sailed the seas, and they soon made things very uncomfortable for the Tripolitans. Tripolitan warships were captured, the city of Tripoli was blockaded so that no ships could go out or in, and it was bombarded repeatedly. When the ruler of Tripoli found that his palace was likely to be battered down about his ears, and that on the water the navy of the new republic was more than a match for him, he gave up the fight and promised to respect American vessels thereafter. This was in 1805.

24. In 1812 came the second war with England. That nation had a thousand vessels of war in her navy, while the United States had only sixteen. But the American ships

were well sailed and well fought, and in a number of battles with English ships our navy was victorious.

25. The most famous of the American vessels was the



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U. S. FRIGATE CONSTITUTION (OLD IRONSIDES)

This famous old ship of the navy was launched in 1797, and by its many brilliant exploits became the darling of the American people. The Constitution was engaged in the war with Tripoli and in the war of 1812. Its venerable hulk is now used as a receiving ship at the Portsmouth (New Hampshire) navy yard.

staunch frigate Constitution. Only a few days after the war began the Constitution sailed from port on a cruise, and met the British frigate *Guerrière* (August 19, 1812). The two vessels fought desperately for two hours. At the

end of that time the British ship lay on the water a dismasted and shattered wreck, and her flag was hauled down in token of surrender. This brilliant victory was followed in rapid succession by others. The British had seemed invincible on the ocean. But the American tars proved quite equal to their haughty foe, and the little navy of the young republic at once sprang into popular favor. As vessel after



"DON'T GIVE UP THE SHIP"

vessel returned to port with a captured ship or the flag of one which had been sent to the bottom, the enthusiasm of the people knew no bounds.

26. In only one battle with a ship of equal force was an American vessel captured. This was the frigate Chesapeake, which became a prize to the British frigate Shannon. Captain Lawrence, of the Chesapeake, was so eager to meet his enemy that he hurried from Boston with a new crew unac-

customed to their duty and with his equipments far from complete. In a desperate action of only fifteen minutes both ships were filled with the slain and maimed. Captain Lawrence was fatally wounded, and as he was carried below he exclaimed, "Don't give up the ship." But the British boarders swept the blood-stained decks of the Chesapeake, and the flag was hauled down by a British officer (June 1, 1813).



PERRY AT THE BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE

27. Only a few weeks after the loss of the Chesapeake a whole British squadron on Lake Erie surrendered to an American squadron. Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry, the American commander, had named his flagship the Lawrence, from the heroic captain of the Chesapeake. In the course of the battle the Lawrence was so cut up as to become unmanageable. Commodore Perry then passed in an open boat, under a heavy fire of musketry, to another vessel of his squadron, the Niagara, which he at once

directed into the center of the enemy's line, and soon compelled their surrender. He announced his victory in the laconic dispatch, "We have met the enemy and they are ours; two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop."

28. The ships which made so glorious a record for the American navy in those two wars were built of wood and equipped with sails. Steam was not yet used to propel vessels. In our navy now, however, all the fighting ships are made of steel and are driven by steam. Sailing ships are no longer of any use. And the powerful cannon on a modern warship throw huge shells to a distance of several miles. But, after all, the success of our new navy in defending the republic will depend on just what it did in 1805 and 1812—the skill and spirit of the officers and crews.

29. The management of the navy is in what is known as the *navy department*, at Washington, whose head, the secretary of the navy, is a member of the president's cabinet.

30. The navy department maintains a school, at Annapolis, Maryland, in which boys are trained to become naval officers. Appointments to this school are made in about the same way as those to the military school at West Point.

31. A Famous Poem About a Famous Ship.—One of the most famous warships of the American navy was the frigate Constitution. She was one of the earliest vessels built, and was frequently engaged in the war with Tripoli and in the war of 1812. Although a wooden ship, she was affectionately called "Old Ironsides" by the sailors.

32. Oliver Wendell Holmes was born at Cambridge,

Massachusetts, in 1809 ; was graduated at Harvard University when twenty years old ; became a physician, and was long a professor in the Harvard Medical School. His literary works were many and varied. He died in 1894. The poem which follows was written when the Constitu-



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OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

tion had become so old that it was proposed to break her up as unfit for service. After the poem rang through the land the plan was reconsidered, and the old warship was carefully preserved as a memorial of the great deeds of our gallant navy.

Old Ironsides

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES

Ay, tear her tattered ensign down ! Long has it waved on high,
And many an eye has danced to see that banner in the sky ;—
Beneath it rang the battle-shout, and burst the cannon's roar ;
The meteor of the ocean air shall sweep the clouds no more !

Her deck, once red with heroes' blood, where knelt the vanquished foe,

When winds were hurrying o'er the flood, and waves were white below,

No more shall feel the victor's tread, or know the conquered knee ;

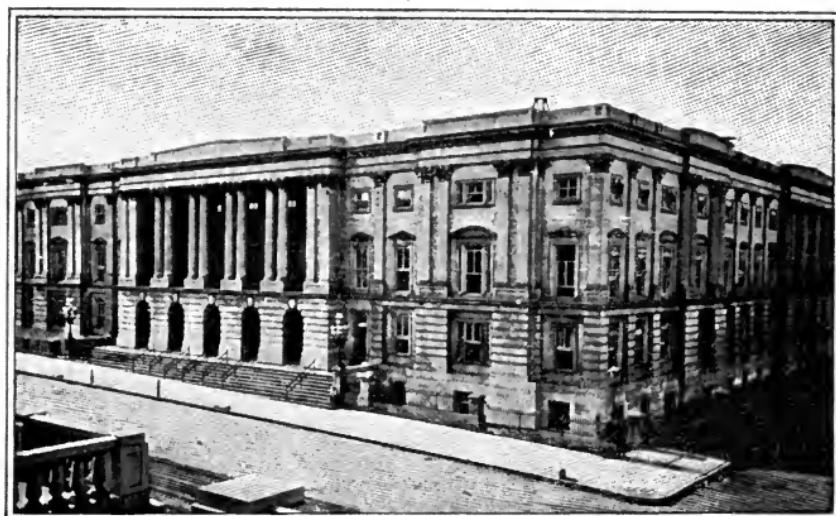
The harpies of the shore shall pluck the eagle of the sea !

O, better that her shattered hulk should sink beneath the wave !
Her thunders shook the mighty deep, and there should be her grave !

Nail to the mast her holy flag, set every threadbare sail,
And give her to the god of storms,—the lightning and the gale !

33. The Post-Office Department.—One of the most familiar sights in a city is the letter-carrier in his blue-gray uniform and with his leather bag slung at his side. Probably no one of our readers has not mailed a letter ; if in a city, at a post-box attached to a street lamp ; if in the country, at the post-office. The letter-carrier and the postmaster are officers of the United States, under the direction of one of the president's cabinet. The head of the department is called the *postmaster-general*.

34. It is very convenient to be able to send a letter to any part of the United States, and the price paid for carrying it, only two cents for an ordinary letter, is so small that almost any one can afford it. The stamp put on the envelope, we should remember, is merely to show that the money has been paid to the post-office for carrying the letter to its destination. By an arrangement with the post-



THE GENERAL POST-OFFICE, WASHINGTON

office departments of other nations it is possible, on paying five cents instead of two, to have a letter taken promptly to almost any place in the world.

35. Besides letters, the post carries newspapers and packages of many kinds. Then, if one wants to send money in a letter, the post-office will sell a money order, which is much safer to inclose than cash.

36. The law forbids any one except the United States post-office department from carrying on the business of

conveying letters. The price of a stamp, now two cents on an ordinary letter, until nearly the middle of this century was sometimes as high as twenty-five cents. At



A POSTMAN

that time envelopes were not commonly used, but the last page of the letter was left blank, and when the sheet was folded and fastened together with sealing wax the address was written on the back.

37. The Interior Department.—The *secretary of the interior*, another of the president's cabinet, has a great variety of business to manage.

38. Every ten years the people of the United States are very carefully counted. At the same time lists are made of the kinds of business in which men are employed, of the number and kind of educational institutions, of the nationality of the people, and of a number of other things which it is convenient to know. This is called the *census*. The last census was taken in 1890, and showed the number of people in the United States to be 62,622,250. The work of taking the census is done by the department of the interior.

39. Another duty of this department is the granting and recording of patents. People are continually inventing a new machine or an improvement of an old machine. Not many years ago the farmers mowed their grass with a scythe, and all sewing was done by hand with a needle. But one ingenious man contrived a mowing machine, which is drawn by horses and cuts the grass very rapidly. And another equally ingenious inventor contrived a sewing machine, by which one woman can do in the same time as much work as several sewing in the old way. Such contrivances as these, and many others like them, are very useful. And to encourage men to plan them the government has made a law which allows an inventor the sole right to sell his inventions for a number of years. In this way sometimes great sums of money are made. The inventors of the telephone, the pneumatic bicycle tire, and the electric light, for instance, have become very rich. Such right to monopolize an invention is called a *patent*. Of course,

as soon as the time of the patent has expired, any one can make or sell the article in question. The patent office grants patents to inventors, and keeps a careful record of such grants.

40. The United States owns many great areas of land. As we have seen (p. 102), there was a time when nearly all the land west of the Alleghany Mountains belonged to the nation. But it has mostly been sold to private persons at a low price, or, indeed, actually given away. A dollar and a quarter an acre was the usual price for a long time. The desire was for the land to be settled and used, so that as many people as possible might have homes of their own and farms on which they might be earning a living for their families. About the time of the great civil war a law was made by congress permitting any head of a family to take 160 acres of the public land for his own at a nominal cost, provided he would make it his home. A residence of five years on the land is required before the title is given, and no title is given at all except to a citizen of the United States.

41. Under the policy of sale at a low price, or, as at present, of actual gift, many thousands of families have found homes on the public land. The vast area west of the Alleghany Mountains was nearly all a wilderness a hundred years ago. Now it consists of many populous states, with great cities, churches, schools, libraries, and, what is more important than all and indeed is the foundation of all, with multitudes of happy homes.

42. The public land is managed by the department of the interior.

43. The care of the Indian reservations is also intrusted to this department. This is a work requiring great intelligence and integrity. Bad management may result in Indian wars, and what people are doing to have the young Indians grow up good citizens (p. 211) will come to little if the government is not just and wise in its dealings.

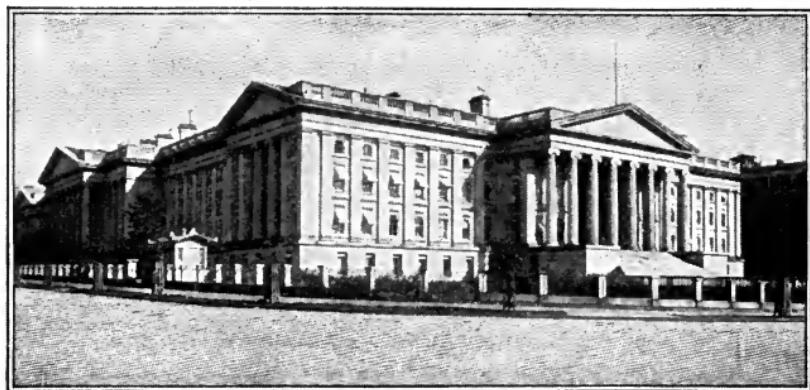
44. The Department of Justice.—The great amount of business done by the different departments makes it often necessary for the government to be concerned in a lawsuit. And it is also convenient that officers of the government should always be able to have the opinion of a good lawyer as to the exact meaning of some law in a particular case. So the president has as one of his cabinet an officer called the *attorney-general*. He is the government lawyer, and his department is the *department of justice*.

45. The Treasury Department.—The department which takes care of the money of the government ranks next in importance after the department of state. But as it provides the means by which all the others do their work, it is put last here. The business of government is expensive. Officers and employees have to be paid salaries, material has to be bought and used, soldiers and sailors have to be fed and clothed. The entire cost of carrying on the federal government of the United States for one year is about \$350,000,000.

46. This vast sum is paid to the government by the people, and is called the national *taxes*. A *tax* is money which the government takes from individuals for public purposes.

Congress makes laws which prescribe how the taxes shall be paid, and how great they shall be, and for what purposes they shall be spent. Neither the president nor any of his cabinet can spend a dollar of the public money unless permitted to do so by such a law.

47. By far the largest part of the national taxes is paid by people who bring goods from foreign countries. At



THE TREASURY BUILDING, WASHINGTON

This is an imposing structure of sandstone and granite, occupying an entire square not far from the president's house. Unlike the latter, however, the treasury building is not set in the midst of beautiful and spacious grounds, but is surrounded by busy thoroughfares. It is said that President Andrew Jackson became impatient at the delay in choosing a site, so one day he walked out from the White House, and, planting his cane in the ground, exclaimed, "Build it here." And there it was built.

The treasury building is full of interest. There one may see the great vaults where the many millions of silver dollars are stored, the rooms where mutilated currency is exchanged for new, the many deft fingers and sharp eyes busy in counting the paper bills, both new and old, and the curious collection of counterfeit notes. It is not at all easy to counterfeit the United States notes. The paper on which they are made has a peculiar silk fiber, and the law forbids any one, unless duly authorized persons, to have a bit of it. Then, the process of engraving the notes is very exact and delicate.

every seaport or other place on the border is an office of the government called a *custom-house*. The custom-house officers inspect all goods brought from abroad and collect from the owner the tax fixed by law. Goods brought into

the country from abroad are called *imports*, and the tax is called a *duty*.

48. The laws of congress also provide for a tax to be paid by the manufacturers of liquors, cigars, and a few other articles. This tax is called the *internal revenue*. Officers of the government inspect the articles as they are made and collect the tax.

49. The vast sums of money thus paid to the government as taxes have to be kept safely, and paid out as the laws direct. In the city of Washington is a huge stone building, the treasury, in whose vaults are kept many millions of dollars in gold and silver and in paper notes. In the city of New York, and in a few other cities, are similar buildings, though smaller, in which other great amounts are kept. And many banks in different parts of the country also keep in their vaults money belonging to the United States.

50. From these sums the government pays out whatever it owes.

51. **Money.**—Money is a very convenient thing. If a man wants to sell a cow and to buy clothes and groceries, he might be able to trade the cow to some other man who happened to have clothing and groceries to sell.

52. But it would not be likely that the same man would have both those articles to sell, or, if he did, that he would want a cow. So a much better way is to exchange the cow for money, and then to exchange the money for clothes with the tailor and for flour and sugar with the grocer. If there were no money it would not be so easy for people to get what they want, even if they had things to sell.

53. Money is usually made of gold or silver, though pieces of little value are of nickel or copper. People would be quite willing to take gold or silver in payment for goods even if it were in the form of bars or dust—*bullion* it is called. But that would not be handy at all, as everybody would have to weigh the metal, and at the same time to test it in order to see if it were pure. So the government takes gold and silver, and makes it into small round pieces

called *coins*.

These coins, we know, always have a certain amount of metal and a certain weight. So when we see the mark of the government on the coin we are saved the trouble of weighing and testing.

In order to

make sure that all coins can be depended on, no one is allowed to manufacture coins but the national government. The place at which they are made is called the *mint*. The United States has several mints, the one at Philadelphia being the oldest.

54. **Notes.**—Paper notes are often called money, but they are not really money at all. They are only promises to pay money—as you will see at once by reading what is printed on one. Some of these paper notes are issued by the national government and some by the national banks.



THE MINT, PHILADELPHIA

Here United States coins—gold, silver, and nickel—are made from the bullion.

55. The notes of the national government are commonly called *greenbacks*. They are promises to pay by the government, but by law are to be received in payment of all debts—with one exception, which you will find printed on such notes.

56. The notes of the national banks are printed by the government at Washington, just as are the greenbacks, and are sent to the banks as may be requested by them.

57. The banks, however, are not allowed to issue paper notes until they have put in the vaults of the treasury at Washington valuable bonds, so that if the bank should fail the notes would still be paid. And government inspectors keep sharp watch of the banks to see that they are honestly managed. Then the government sends the banks the notes which they wish to issue.

58. The Treasury.—All this enormous business of the government in dealing with money—collecting taxes, paying out what the government owes, stamping coins at the mint, printing currency notes, printing and issuing national bank-notes, and keeping watch over the national banks—is attended to by the *treasury department*. Its head, the *secretary of the treasury*, is one of the most important of the president's cabinet. He has under him a little army of officials—the clerks at Washington in the great treasury building, the officers in the many custom-houses, the internal-revenue collectors, the bank inspectors.

59. The Department of Agriculture.—The secretary of agriculture keeps watch of agricultural methods in all parts of the world, and publishes the information which he gathers, so that our farmers may know what to do.

60. We see what a great machine the government of the United States is. The eight heads of departments who form the president's cabinet hold very important places. And over all is the president of the United States, with the power to direct everything.

61. We have seen (p. 135) that if the president and vice-president both should die, the duties of president would be performed by the secretary of state. In case of his death, the secretary of the treasury would take up the work, and so on in the order of the cabinet. This is the order of succession : secretary of state, secretary of the treasury, secretary of war, attorney-general, postmaster-general, secretary of the navy, secretary of the interior. When the law which made this arrangement was passed there was no secretary of agriculture. So that officer is not in the line of succession to the presidency.

CHAPTER XII

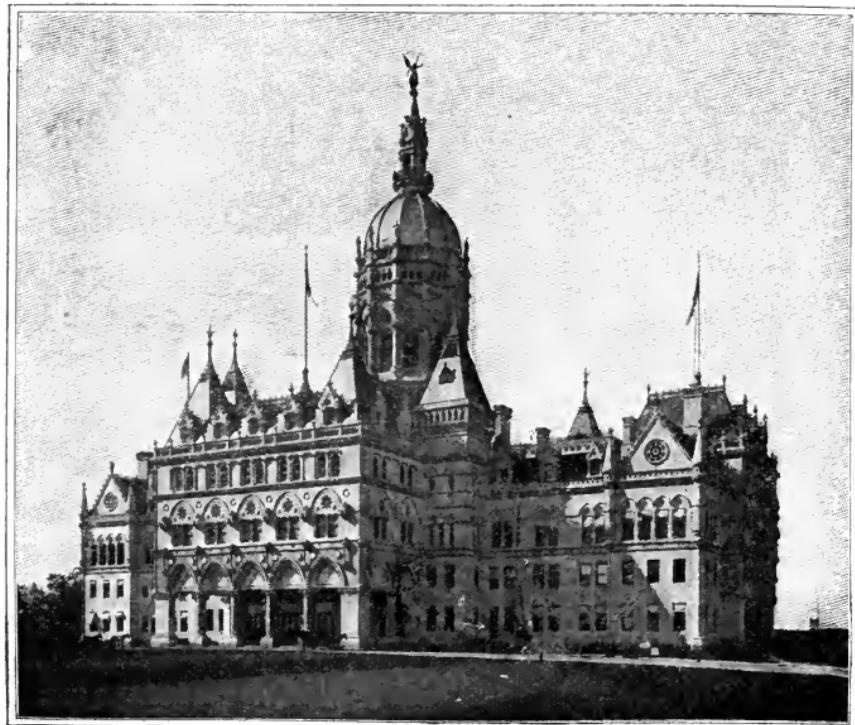
How Laws Are Enforced in the States

1. The Governor.—Just as there is a president of the United States, whose duty it is to see that the Constitution and the laws made by congress are obeyed, so each one of our forty-five states has a *governor*. His duty is to see that the laws of the state are obeyed. He lives in the city which is called the capital of the state, and is usually a very busy man. However, the governor of a state does not have so many powers as the president of the United States. The governor is elected by the people for a term of office which varies from one year to four in different states.

2. Departments.—The departments of the state administration are very nearly the same as those of the national administration. But there is this difference: the president appoints the heads of departments, and they are accustomed to hold regular meetings with him—“cabinet meetings”—at which they give advice about important matters. In the states the heads of departments are usually elected by the people, and they do not form the governor’s “cabinet”—that is, they do not habitually hold meetings for the purpose of talking over public business, and are not supposed to be the governor’s advisers.

3. The departments are not the same in all the states.

There is usually a secretary of state, who keeps an exact record of all the laws made by the legislature, and who keeps other state documents, and does some other state



THE CONNECTICUT STATE HOUSE AT HARTFORD

The state capitol at Hartford, finished in 1880, is of white marble, and cost about \$2,500,000. It is one of the most tasteful buildings of the kind in the Union.

business. But this officer of course has nothing to do with foreign nations, as has the federal secretary of state.

4. There is always a state treasurer, who keeps the money of the state and pays it out as the legislature may direct. Then, there is another officer called the "auditor," whose duty is to examine bills against the state, and make sure that they are correct before they are paid.

5. The attorney-general is the state lawyer. He tells the governor and other state officers his opinion of the meaning of the laws which they are enforcing, so that they may avoid mistakes by having wrong notions. Then, if the state has a lawsuit, the attorney-general takes care of it for the state.

6. The states have no war or navy departments. Still, each state has an army of soldiers, usually called the *national guard*. The national guard consists of men who are busy about their own affairs most of the time, and drill only occasionally—once a week, as a general thing. In the summer they sometimes spend a few days in camp. If there should be a riot which the police could not put down, or if an enemy should invade the state, the governor has the right to call out the national guard. They then give their whole time to military duty until the danger has passed away.

7. Some states have still other business, much of which is managed by groups of men, each group being known as a *board*. Thus there is often a state board of education, which has the oversight of the public schools, or of some of them. Sometimes, instead of a board of education, these duties are put in charge of one man, the superintendent of public instruction, and sometimes the board chooses a superintendent. Then, most of the states have normal schools, insane asylums, schools for the deaf and dumb, and prisons to which are sent persons who have broken the laws. These institutions are also usually managed by boards. The members of the boards are often appointed by the governor.

8. The Lieutenant-Governor.—It will be remembered that one of the officers of the United States is a vice-president, who presides at the meetings of the senate, and who becomes president if that officer should die. Most of the states have also such an officer, the “lieutenant-governor.” He presides over the state senate, and becomes governor in case of the death, or, sometimes, in case of the absence from the state, of the governor. The lieutenant-governor is elected by the people, for the same term as the governor. The state of Maine, however, and several others, have no lieutenant-governor. In these states the senate elects its own chairman.

9. County Officers.—In each county there are also officers whose duty it is to see that the laws are carried out. The county has no president or governor. The county legislature, whether *county board* or *board of supervisors*, besides making laws, also sees to more or less administrative business. Then, there is a treasurer, who takes care of the county money, just as the state treasurer does of the state money; and a sheriff, who is really the chief policeman of the county. It is the sheriff’s *deputies* who usually arrest criminals in the county, and the county jail is in the sheriff’s care. So we see that the sheriff is quite important to the good order of the community. There is a county attorney, too, who is the lawyer for the county, as the attorney-general is for the state. All these officers are in most states elected by the people of the county, although in some states, as in Maryland, the county board chooses the treasurer.

10. The County Seat.—We remember that the city

in which the state legislature meets and the governor lives is called the *capital*. The county, too, has a capital, but it is usually called the *county seat*. Quite often the county seat is rather a small town. But it generally has one or more county buildings—the court-house, jail, and perhaps others. The county board generally meets in the court-house, and there also are the offices of most of the other county officers.

11. The Mayor.—If your home is in a city you have heard many times of the “mayor.” He is the city’s governor, whose duty it is to see that the laws are obeyed. The mayor is chosen by the people, just as is the governor of the state.

12. The name “mayor” was applied to the chief officer of the first cities which were organized in our country, for the reason that that was the name used in the English cities. In England the mayor, on official occasions, wears an elaborate costume. The lord mayor of the city of London is elected annually. His inauguration, on the ninth of November, “lord mayor’s day,” is made the occasion of a gorgeous parade through the streets. The lord mayor’s robe is on some occasions of black silk, on others of violet silk, or of scarlet cloth, or of crimson velvet.

13. The London Lord Mayor’s Banquet.—On the evening of lord mayor’s day a banquet is given by the mayor at the London guildhall (the city hall, we should call it)—a banquet which is famous for its luxury. A few years ago one of the guests at this banquet made a curious list of the articles of food provided. Provision

was made for a thousand guests, and this is what was set before them :

Two hundred fifty tureens of turtle soup, 6 great dishes of fish, 80 roast turkeys, 60 roast pullets, 60 dishes of fowl, 40 dishes of capons, 80 pheasants, 24 geese, 40 dishes of partridges, 15 dishes of wild fowl, 2 barons* of beef, 3 rounds of beef, 2 stewed rumps of beef, 12 sirloins and ribs of beef, 2 quarters of lamb, 50 French pies, 60 pigeon pies, 53 ornamental hams, 43 tongues, 60 dishes of potatoes, 6 dishes of asparagus, 50 dishes of shell-fish, 60 mince pies, 50 dishes of blanc-mange, 40 dishes of cream tarts, 400 jellies and ice-creams, 100 pineapples, 120 dishes of cake, 200 dishes of hothouse grapes, 350 dishes of other fruits. With each course there was a different kind of wine also.

One would think that even a thousand guests might find enough to eat in this profusion. Our American mayors are not in the habit of hospitality on so large a scale. Perhaps they might do as well if they had the salary of the London lord mayor—\$50,000 a year !

14. American Mayors.—The mayors of American cities differ somewhat as to the powers they possess, depending on the state in which the city is situated. In some cities the mayors are allowed to appoint or to remove nearly all the public officers, and in this way the mayor can really control the way in which the city business is done. But in other cities many officers are quite independent of the mayor, so that things go on without his having much to say about them.

* A *baron* of beef is two sirloins not cut apart.

15. City Departments.—The administrative departments in a city are in some respects like those in the counties, the states, and the nation.

16. There is a treasurer, who keeps the money of the city and pays it out as directed by law. There is an auditor, who examines all bills against the city and approves those which he finds correct. The treasurer pays no bills unless the auditor has approved them. Then, there is a department of police, which keeps order in the city. The policemen arrest people who break the laws, like thieves and robbers, and also keep watch to prevent the laws from being broken, as far as possible. Policemen wear a uniform, customarily of blue with brass buttons, and carry a club. The department of police is in some cities managed by a single person, the *chief*. But in other cities there is a group of persons, called a *board*, which appoints the chief of police and manages all the affairs of the department.

17. The Fire Department.—Another very important department in a city is that which is intended to prevent or to put out fires. City houses are so many and so crowded together that a fire catching in one is very apt to spread to many others.

18. In London, in the year 1666, a fire broke out which spread on all sides. The buildings were mostly of wood and were dry as tinder. And people then knew little about the quick and effective ways of putting out fires which we have. For three days the conflagration raged, destroying thirteen hundred houses and ninety churches, besides other property of enormous value. A similar fire

occurred in Chicago in 1871, and other cities have had disasters of the same kind, like Boston, Massachusetts, and Troy, New York. So much fear is there of fire that the law in all large cities now forbids wooden buildings to be put up except in the suburbs.

19. The fire department is carefully organized. It is managed in some cities by a *board*, consisting of several men appointed for that purpose; in others, by one man, the *fire-marshall*. Engine-houses are distributed over the city, and men and horses are always ready at a moment's warning to race to a fire with the fire-engine. When a fire is discovered the alarm is given by an electric bell which sounds in the nearest engine-houses. It is only a few minutes after the alarm sounds before several streams of water are playing on the burning building.

20. The Care of Health.—The health department in a city is one of which in “the good old times” centuries ago people did not dream. But to-day no city of a civilized country neglects care for the public health. When people are crowded together in masses, as they are in our cities, many diseases are caused by the very fact of the crowded life. The garbage and refuse of families and hotels and stables collect very fast, and unless carried away promptly, are sure to fester and reek with the germs of typhoid and other deadly pestilences. Then, if a contagious or infectious disease breaks out it spreads with frightful rapidity when so many people live near together.

21. The Plague in London.—Only a short time before the great fire destroyed so much of London that city was the victim of a frightful plague. “In the filthy cities of

those days plagues were not uncommon, and in the narrow streets of London, where the upper stories of the houses almost touched, and the clay floors were covered with rotting straw, food, and dirt, a hot summer always brought more or less pestilence. The summer of 1665 was hot beyond all experience. In May the plague, which had been raging on the continent, broke out in London, and went on increasing all the summer, till in September fifteen hundred persons died in one day and twenty-four thousand in three weeks. On door after door the red cross appeared to mark the plague within, while the dead cart, with its muffled bell, passed along at night, and the cry, 'Bring out your dead,' sounded through the stillness of the almost deserted streets. King, courtiers, members of parliament, even doctors and clergy, fled from the plague-stricken city. With the winter the plague died away, after more than one hundred thousand persons had perished."

22. This pestilence was so fearful in its effects because the city was so dirty, because the doctors were so ignorant, and because almost nothing was done to prevent the spread of sickness.

23. In a well-ordered modern city great pains are taken by the health department to prevent the beginning or spread of disease which may lead to such results. Inspectors cause the removal of dead animals or decaying rubbish. Other inspectors examine meats and fruits and vegetables brought into the city, and sometimes condemn and cause to be thrown away entire carloads of unwholesome stuff. If a case of contagious disease occurs, like diphtheria or scarlet fever, the house is at once "quarantined"—that is, a placard is posted

up and people are warned to keep away. In a very bad case, like that of small-pox, the health officers remove the patient to the public hospital—the “pest-house,” it is often called.

24. All this work is generally managed by a *board of health*, consisting of several men, usually doctors, and in many cities appointed by the mayor.

25. In a large city there are other departments of the government. One sees to the supply of water, which is brought in great pipes from some lake or river. The water has to be abundant, as so much is needed for drinking and cooking and washing, and for putting out fires. And it is very important for the water to be pure, as impure water is one of the commonest causes of dangerous fevers. Still another department manages the great drainage system of the city, building and keeping in order the sewers which carry off the liquid filth, which is so dangerous if allowed to remain. Still other city officers keep many wagons busy hauling away the garbage and ashes and other rubbish, which would choke the sewers. And others see to paving the streets and to keeping the pavements in good repair.

26. School Department.—One of the most important departments in a city is that which manages the public schools. Every American city has a number of school-houses in which the children are taught free of charge. These buildings and their fittings cost many thousands of dollars, and the teachers’ salaries cost many thousands more. But here boys and girls may learn what will make them better citizens, better and happier men and women. The city manages all these schools through a body called the *school board*, or *board of education*. The members in

some cities are appointed by the mayor ; in others they are elected by the people ; in others they are appointed in some other way.

27. It is the business of the school board to see that proper buildings are provided and cared for, that suitable teachers are appointed, and that good text-books are selected. In many cities the school board elects teachers every year. It is plain enough that for so important duties as those of a member of a school board the best men in the city ought to be selected—men intelligent, honest, public-spirited. If this republic is to be managed by its citizens, as, in fact, it is, every citizen ought to be intelligent. To be sure, there are many citizens, especially women, who do not vote. But those who do vote ought to understand what they are voting for or against. And women, even if they do not vote, ought to understand the questions which the voters are thinking about, because in very many cases the opinions of women will have great weight with voters. So it is necessary that everybody in a republic should be well educated. That is why the public schools are provided and are made free to all.

28. If they are so necessary to the republic, these schools ought to be as good as possible. Besides, the school buildings are paid for and the teachers are paid with money which belongs to all the people. Therefore the school board, who are selected to spend this money, ought to do it so that all the people get the worth of it. And they do not get the worth of it if the buildings are bad or if unfit teachers are appointed. But unless the members of the school board are honest and unless they know what good buildings are and what good teachers are, the people are quite sure

to be cheated. There is no more important branch of the government than that which manages the schools.

29. Village Officers.—A village is composed of a small group of people living near together. The only difference between a city and a village is that the city is larger. A village, like a city, has to have a government. The village president holds a place like that of the mayor in a city. Then, there is a treasurer, to keep the money of the village ; a constable, or sometimes several constables, who are the village police, and some other officers. Sometimes a village has a fire department and a water department, and then, of course, it has to have officers to manage them. All these officers are the servants of the village, and each one has special duties.

30. School Districts.—A school district is a part of a county, sometimes a village, in which there is a public school for the people who live in the district. The district is not very large, so that all the children can easily walk to school. The school affairs are managed by a sort of board, called a *school committee*, or sometimes *trustees*. They are elected by the people of the district, and have the same powers and duties as the board of education in a city. The district school in the country is often a small building, with only one teacher—one in the summer and a different one in winter. The larger boys seldom go to school in the summer, being too busy on the farms. It is in just such modest schools that many of our best and greatest men have been taught all they ever had a chance to learn from teachers and books. The country school ought to have as good teachers as the money which the people pay will provide.

And it ought to be the pride of every district to make its school as good as possible.

31. Swiss Schools.—The common schools of Switzerland are among the best in the world. The people are eager that they shall be so, and take great interest in them all the time. What is going on in the school is matter of common talk in a Swiss district, which the people find quite as interesting as the weather or politics. This constant intelligent interest, of course, is a great help to the teachers and a great encouragement to the pupils. It would be a good thing if we took as much interest in our schools.

CHAPTER XIII

Judge and Jury

1. If a citizen is accused of breaking the law, he is liable to be put in prison, or otherwise punished, as the law may direct. But by the Constitution of the United States, and by those of the several states, no one can be punished as a criminal unless he has been duly *tried* in a court of justice and found guilty. In order to see how such a trial is conducted, and what it means, we have supposed one John Doe to be accused of a crime and to be brought before the court. Let us imagine ourselves spectators at the trial.

2. **The Trial of John Doe for Burglary.**—John Doe has been arrested by a deputy sheriff on the charge of burglary. One of his neighbors woke one morning to find that the dining-room window had been broken open in the night and that the silver spoons had been stolen. Getting into a house in this way at night in order to steal is what the law calls *burglary*. John Doe is a shiftless fellow, who was seen hanging around the day after trying to sell some silver spoons to a pawnbroker. The spoons he claimed to have found in a small parcel by the roadside, but as this story was doubted, Doe was arrested and put in jail. The county attorney* made inquiries and became convinced that the burglar was, in fact, no other than John Doe. In a few days there was held at the county seat a meeting of what is

* Called in some states “district attorney”; in some, “state attorney.”



A POLICE COURT

In a police court minor offenders are tried and punished. There is no jury.

known as the *grand jury*. This is a group of men, not more than twenty-four nor less than twelve in number, selected from the citizens for the purpose of seeing whether the laws have been broken by anybody. The county attorney told the grand jury his reasons for believing that Doe was a burglar. These reasons seemed to the jury to be good ones, and so they voted that John Doe should be tried on the charge of stealing the spoons—of committing burglary. The vote of the grand jury was written out on paper and duly signed. This paper is called an *indictment*, and Doe was now said to be *indicted* for burglary. So he was kept in jail until he should be tried.

3. But the fact that the grand jury had indicted him by no means made it sure that he really had stolen the spoons. It merely meant that the public accusers, the grand jury, thought it probable that he was guilty. But to decide whether he was or not, must be left to a very different body of men acting in a very different way. So we see that the grand jury does not decide the question of guilt or innocence ; it merely decides whether, on the whole, it is worth while to keep an accused man in jail until he can be tried and the real facts found out. In other words, the grand jury are, as we have said, the *public accusers*. In our country no one can be kept long in jail or tried on a charge of breaking the laws unless a grand jury have voted to *indict* him.

4. We have said that Doe had to be *tried* in order to decide whether he was guilty or not. Let us look into the room in which the trial is going on, and we shall see at once what we mean by *trying* a man.

5. In the county court-house are many offices and rooms. One of these is the court-room, and it is full of people. It is a rather large room, with a high ceiling. At one end is a desk on a raised platform. Behind this desk sits a gentleman who is evidently presiding. No one speaks without addressing him, and everybody promptly obeys when he gives any directions. If there is any difference of opinion about what the law means he decides it. Whoever speaks to him does not call him by name ; they say, "Your honor." This gentleman is *the judge*. He has been elected by the people, or else appointed by the governor of the state. Some states have one way and some another. The judge's term of office is several years, in some states for life. A person selected as judge is usually a lawyer, and he ought to be a good one. Besides that, he should be a very upright man, fair and just to everybody, incapable of being frightened or flattered or bribed. There is no more honorable place in the whole government than that of a judge, and a person who holds that place is treated with great respect.

6. On another raised platform, at the left of the judge, are twelve men sitting in chairs. They differ very much one from another. Evidently none of them are lawyers. Some are farmers, some are merchants, some are mechanics. This is the *jury*. They are not appointed, as is the judge, for a long term. Their names have been drawn by lot from a list of citizens in the county, and they are to serve for a single term of the court (a few weeks), or perhaps merely for one trial. These twelve men have left their business and are obliged to give their whole time

to the trial of John Doe until his case is decided. Then they may be excused from further attendance at court, while the judge goes on with a new jury to try another case. The jury do not (at least that is the law in most states) decide disputes about the meaning of the law. It is the judge who does that. The jury decide disputes about *facts*. In this case the indictment says that Doe forced his way into a house at night and stole certain silver spoons. Doe denies this, and says that at the time of the burglary he was many miles away from the place. Of course both these statements cannot be true. And it is the business of the jury to decide which *is* true; in other words, to decide what are the *facts* in the case.

7. At the right of the judge is another little raised platform with a railing fronting the jury. This is called the *dock*, and here the accused person is placed during the trial. John Doe is sitting here, looking at the jury.

8. Just in front of the judge, at another desk, but lower, sits a clerk, who keeps a careful record of all that is done.

9. On the floor in front of the judge and the clerk is a space covered with chairs and a table or two. Here sit a number of busy men, most of them with green bags, from which they draw many papers. These men are *lawyers*. When a person is on trial before a court of justice he needs to have his case managed by one who knows the laws, and who understands how to make clear and convincing statements to the judge and jury. So he employs a lawyer. And the lawyers whom we now see gathered in court are here, some of them, ready for the next case, some interested in this, some merely watching

what is going on and hoping that sometime they, too, will be employed ; these last are mostly very young men just beginning the profession.

\ 10. The space reserved for the lawyers has a railing which divides it from the body of the room. Here, in benches which rise one above another, are the audience. People are usually quite free to sit and watch the proceedings of the court. Of course the friends of any one who is on trial are present. And many go from mere curiosity, especially if the case is one which has been much discussed in the newspapers.

11. In this court-room, then, all is ready for the trial of John Doe. The judge and clerk are in place. The jury have been selected and have taken an oath to decide according to the testimony. The prisoner has been brought in and placed in the dock. He has had the indictment read to him and has been asked to say whether he is guilty or not. He has said that he is not guilty. Then the county attorney rises and addresses the court. He details the crime, and tells in a general way how he expects to prove that it was Doe who committed it. Then he calls his witnesses. The man whose silver was stolen, some members of his family, and his servant, tell what facts they know. Each of these is a *witness*. The story which each tells, or the answers he gives to the attorney's questions, is called his *testimony*, or *evidence*. Each witness, as his name is called, comes forward and takes his place in a chair on a little platform facing the jury—the *stand*. He then takes a solemn oath to tell “the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.” Then the attorney

questions the witness, the answers being carefully recorded. For this purpose there is in the court a stenographer, who is able to write in shorthand as fast as a man can talk. When the attorney has finished questioning a witness, the prisoner's attorney has the privilege of asking questions. This is called the *cross-examination*, and of course these questions are very searching. If a witness has not spoken the truth or has kept anything back which might help the prisoner, the cross-examination is apt to bring it out.

12. We have said that each witness, as he is called to the stand, takes an oath to tell the truth. If, then, he tells a falsehood, he is guilty of what the law calls *perjury*, and if he is found out he will himself be arrested and tried for that crime. If he is found guilty he will be sent to prison.

13. After the county attorney has taken the testimony of the members of the household whose silver has been stolen, he calls other witnesses. Some of them tell what they know of Doe's movements after the burglary—where he was, what he was doing. Others saw him hanging around the house the day before the burglary. Then the man who bought the spoons testifies that the spoons which the sheriff took from him, and which are produced in court, are the very spoons which he bought from Doe a few days after the burglary. The owner of the spoons is called back to the stand and declares that they are his property—the ones which were stolen. Here the county attorney rests his case—that is, he tells the court that he has no more witnesses; he thinks he has proved Doe guilty.

14. Now is the turn of the prisoner's attorney, and he calls what witnesses he has. One declares that he has known Doe for a long time, but never knew him to steal. Doe himself is put on the stand, and explains that he was idling about the house in question merely because he was waiting to speak to a man employed there, who, it turned out, was away that day. As to the spoons, he declared that he picked them up in the road, tied up in a bundle. As they had no name or initials, he did not know whose they were, and thought he had a right to them, as he found them. The night of the burglary he said that he spent sleeping in a barn three miles away. A farm laborer, who was the next witness, swore that he saw Doe enter the barn and lie down to sleep in the hay, and that at a very early hour the next morning, going to feed the horses, he saw Doe yet sleeping. Each of these witnesses was cross-examined by the county attorney. In the course of cross-examining the farm laborer he brought out the fact that there was plenty of time between his two visits to the barn for Doe to go to the other house, steal the spoons, and return.

15. After all the witnesses had been examined, each of the attorneys made a speech, one arguing that the evidence plainly showed that Doe stole the spoons, the other arguing that it was not proven—that there was room for a reasonable doubt—and so that the jury should find him not guilty.

16. Then the judge addressed the jury. He explained to them just what the law means by burglary, what must be proved in order to find the prisoner guilty, what is

meant by a reasonable doubt—that if they had such a doubt their verdict (*i.e.*, their decision) should be “not guilty.”

17. The jury were now led from the room by an officer of the court, and shown into a private room, where they could talk the case over. After a half hour they sent word to the judge that they had agreed on a verdict, and accordingly were led back to their places in the court. Being asked if they had agreed on a verdict, the foreman of the jury rose in his place and replied that they had. “What is your verdict?” “Guilty.” Then the roll of the jury was called, and each man in turn rose and said that that was his verdict. Unless every one of the twelve voted “guilty,” the prisoner could not be convicted.

18. When it was shown that the jury were of one mind, the prisoner was told to stand, and the judge addressed a few words to him. He reminded him that he had had a fair and impartial trial before a jury of his countrymen; that, as he was too poor to pay a lawyer to act as his attorney, the court had assigned him one, who would be paid by the state, and that the jury had found him guilty. Then the judge went on to state the penalty of his crime—the *sentence*—which was three years at hard labor in the state penitentiary. The prisoner was then led away by the officers, and the trial of John Doe was ended.

19. **Criminal Trials.**—Of course trials on criminal charges will differ in many details from the one above sketched. But all are alike in some important points. No one accused of crime can be considered guilty and punished unless he has been indicted by a grand jury, or has in some

similar way been publicly accused. He must then be tried by a regular court, and cannot be convicted without the unanimous vote of a jury of twelve men. If he cannot afford to hire a lawyer to take care of his defense, the state furnishes him one free of cost. If his witnesses are reluctant to testify, the state compels them to do so. And witnesses who are known to testify falsely are severely punished. All this care our republic takes that people may not be falsely accused and unjustly punished.

20. The citizens of our republic have one other important protection against being kept in prison unjustly. If any one is put in prison, as he believes, contrary to law, his attorney may go to a judge and ask him to look into the matter. The judge may then send an order to the jailer directing him to bring the prisoner before him (the judge) and explain the reason for the imprisonment. Such an order from a judge any jailer must obey. If, when the judge hears the reasons, he does not think they are good ones, he has a right to have the prisoner set at liberty. The order sent to a jailer directing him to bring a prisoner before a judge is called *a writ of habeas corpus*. *Habeas corpus* are Latin words, and mean "produce the body."

21. Perhaps on the hearing the judge may conclude that the prisoner is justly confined. Then the order will be, not for release, but for the imprisonment to continue. Or the judge may think that it is quite right for the prisoner to be tried on the charge which has been made against him, but that meanwhile it is not necessary to keep him in jail. Then the judge may order the prisoner *admitted to bail*. What that means is, that if persons approved by

the judge will agree to forfeit a fixed sum of money in case the accused person does not appear at the trial, then he (the accused) is set at liberty. Of course it is his duty to present himself for trial at such time as may be set.

22. All these pains are taken so that the law shall do injustice to no one. And there is another protection. If the prisoner is found guilty and thinks that in some way his trial was not a fair one—that the judge made a mistake about the law, or that the jury was prejudiced against him—then he has the right to *appeal* to a higher court. And if the judge in that court can be made to think that there has been some error in the lower court, he may order that the whole case shall be tried over again.

23. But sometimes, by means of all these safeguards, a real criminal is able to escape punishment, or at least to delay it for a very long time. More than a year has been known to pass after a criminal's arrest before he is finally sentenced.

24. "Lynch Law."—In some parts of the country, when a particularly brutal crime has been committed, the people are anxious that the criminals shall be punished surely and promptly. And if they fear great delay, or perhaps that there will be no punishment at all, then they get greatly excited. At times a mob gathers, and the prisoner is taken from the jail by force, and perhaps hanged on the limb of a tree. This is called *lynching*.

25. An act of lynching is, in fact, itself a brutal crime. There is no fair trial, of course, and there is always danger that it is an innocent person who has been punished; indeed, that has often happened. In a civilized land all

offenses against the law ought to be dealt with in a lawful way. If the laws are not good, the people can choose a legislature which will make them better. But lawless lynchings are a disgrace to our republic, and people who love their country will have nothing to do with them.

26. Civil Trials.—But our courts try other cases besides those of criminals. If two men have a disagreement about money, or a piece of land, for instance, and cannot settle it between them, it is settled in a court of law. The one who appeals to the court is called the *plaintiff*, and the other the *defendant*. Each has his lawyer to conduct the case. Judge and jury form the court, the judge presiding, as in the trial of John Doe, and deciding the law, the jury deciding disputes about facts. There is the same right of *appeal* to a higher court as has been explained above, so that every case will be tried with great care. Such a case as comes from a dispute about property, in which no law has been violated, is called a *civil* case. The case of John Doe was a *criminal* case.

27. The Courts.—There are two different kinds of courts in our republic, federal courts and state courts.

28. State Courts.—Each state has such courts as it pleases. In each town or village, and in different parts of a city, are held courts which settle very trifling disputes. The judge in such a court is called a *justice of the peace*. The cases are usually so trifling that they are not referred to a jury.

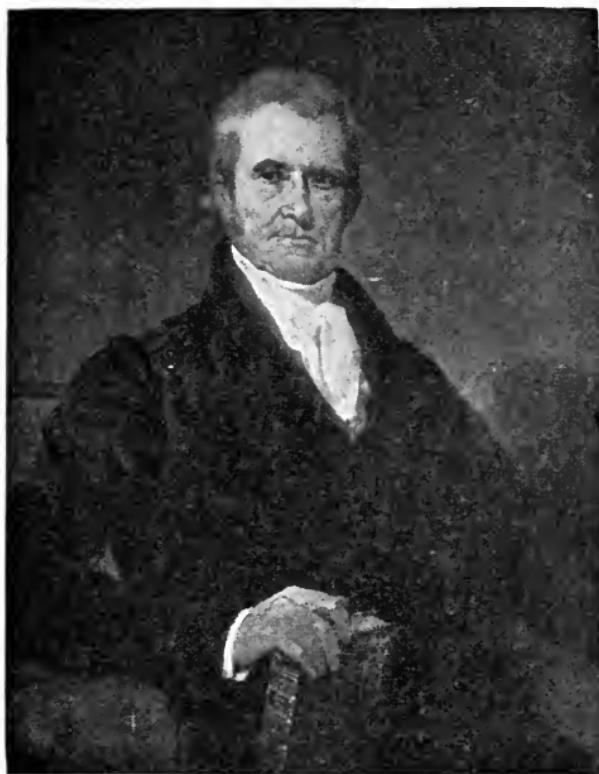
29. In each county is a court usually called a *county court*. Then, in each state is one court which is the highest of all in the state. This is usually called the *supreme court*.

From its decisions, of course, there can be no appeal within the state. In New York this court is called the *court of appeals*. Then, there are several courts in many states to which appeals are taken from the county courts, and to which some cases are taken directly instead of going to the county court at all. These intermediate courts have various names in different states. In these courts and in the supreme court there are several judges instead of one. For instance, in the Illinois supreme court there are seven judges, and there are the same number in the New York court of appeals.

30. There are other courts in the states also. It is not necessary here to explain them all. Any lawyer will tell you what are the courts in your state. Do not fail to find out.

31. **Federal Courts.**—The federal courts are of several kinds. Lowest in the list are the *district* courts. The entire republic is divided into seventy-one districts, with one judge in each. At the city of Washington sits the United States supreme court, consisting of nine judges—*justices*, they are called. Then, as in the states, there are certain intermediate courts. Appeals are carried in some cases to these intermediate courts from the district courts, and from the intermediate courts to the supreme courts. Some other cases come, first of all, in one of the intermediate courts. But always the last appeal is to the supreme court. From the decision of that court there is no appeal.

32. The Constitution of the United States tells what sort of cases shall be heard in the federal courts, and all other



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JOHN MARSHALL

As a young man Marshall was an officer in the revolutionary army. He afterwards became a lawyer, was for a short time member of the cabinet of President John Adams, and by him was appointed chief justice of the supreme court of the United States. He was the most illustrious of the eminent men who have held that distinguished position. Chief Justice Marshall died in 1835.

cases are heard in state courts. And the constitution of each state fixes the number and duties of courts for that state.

33. All the federal judges are appointed by the president of the United States. But first he sends in their names to the United States senate, and unless that body approves, the appointment is not made. Federal judges hold office as long as they do not misbehave.

34. The supreme court of the United States is one of the most famous and respected courts in the world. The judges have always been honest and able men and they are very independent. If any legislative body, even the congress of the United States, makes a law which is contrary to the federal Constitution, the supreme court, in deciding a case under the law, will plainly declare it to be no law at all, because it is *unconstitutional*. Then no one will be bound to obey that act any longer. This is a very great power, and one which is not possessed by the courts of European nations.

35. The supreme court is a very dignified body. The members wear silken gowns when the court is in session. Their meetings are held in the capitol at Washington. One of the nine members, the chief justice, presides. The most famous of the chief justices was John Marshall, of Virginia. He held the office for over thirty years, from 1801 to 1835.

CHAPTER XIV

How the Government Gets Money

1. Cost of Government.—All this work which the government does for the people takes money. Members of legislatures and judges and mayors and policemen and firemen and all the rest of the servants of the people cannot afford to work for nothing. They have to be paid. The salary of the president of the United States is \$50,000 a year. Members of congress, whether senators or representatives, receive \$5,000 a year. Members of the president's cabinet have \$8,000, and justices of the supreme court \$10,000 a year. The chief justice has \$10,500. There are very few public officers who are not paid. Members of school boards and of some few other boards seldom have salaries. In cities there are streets to be paved and sewers to be made. Then, there are public buildings of all sorts—post-offices, court-houses, school-houses, fire-engine houses, prisons, and many others. All these require money to build. So we see that it is impossible to have any sort of government without money to keep it going. Where does the money come from?

2. Taxes.—It is the people who create the government and for whom the government does the work. So, of course, the people must pay the cost. And the money

which people pay to the government for its support is called *taxes*.

3. Taxes are paid to the federal government and to the state governments.

4. **Federal Taxes.**—The most of the taxes of the federal government come from *duties*, or, as they are also called, *customs* (page 162). Duties are sums of money paid by merchants to the federal government for the privilege of bringing goods into our country from foreign countries. For instance, we get sugar from Cuba, coffee from Brazil and from Java, tea from China, wines from France, and immense quantities of all sorts of goods from Great Britain. When a ship loaded with foreign goods reaches one of our seaports, it is not allowed to land its cargo until officers of the United States treasury department have made an examination to see what is on board, and arrangements have been made to pay the duty. The duty is sometimes reckoned at a certain per cent. of the value of the goods, sometimes at a fixed sum on a certain quantity. The former are called *ad valorem*, the latter *specific*, duties. In each of our border towns there is a United States custom-house, whose officers are busy examining imported goods and receiving the duties, which they then pay over into the United States treasury. From this source the treasury received in the year 1896 no less than \$160,000,000, and in 1890 the amount was \$229,000,000. These are sums of money so vast that it is almost impossible to imagine them. But all this and much more were used by the treasury in paying the expenses of the federal government. In fact, about a hundred fifty

millions more are paid into the treasury from what is called the *internal revenue*. This consists of money paid by manufacturers of distilled spirits, like whisky, and of tobacco and cigars, and a few other things. Every time one buys a stamp to mail a letter a tax is paid to the government of the United States. This tax is not a large one, as all the government wants is to get enough from the sale of stamps to pay the actual cost of carrying the mails. In fact, this cost is seldom quite met by the sale of stamps.

5. Indirect Taxes.—If a merchant pays a duty on goods which he imports, he will try to get it back by charging a higher price when he sells them. And the same is true of the manufacturer of whisky or cigars. Of course, if it happens that other people have similar articles to sell which are not imported and which can be sold at a profit for less money than the importer wants, the latter may not be able to get back the tax he has paid. But usually the higher price can be obtained ; and whenever that is the case, we see at once that the tax is paid in the end by the person who drinks the coffee or who smokes the cigars. Such taxes, which in the end are paid by some one else than the person from whom the money comes to the government, are called *indirect* taxes. Federal taxes have nearly all been of this kind, and all of them are provided in laws made by the congress of the United States.

6. State Taxes.—The taxes which pay the expense of state, county, and city government are provided in laws made by the state legislature or by local bodies.

7. People who own land and buildings pay a certain sum every year. A public officer, the *assessor*, decides what a

given piece of land is worth. This is usually a smaller sum than the property would actually bring in the market. Then the tax paid by the owner is great or small, according to the assessed value of his property, the *rate* of taxation being so many cents or mills on the dollar as may be determined by the legislature. Usually a part of the tax is for the state government, a part for the county, and a part for the city or village. This sort of tax is called *direct*, because it cannot so easily be passed on to some one else.

8. People in some states also pay a tax on other valuables which they may own besides land and buildings. The assessor decides as well as he can what each person's things are worth, and the tax is paid accordingly. In some states, again, a *poll tax* is levied ; that is, a certain amount to be paid by each person, without regard to his property.

9. **Public Debts.**—Sometimes the expenses of the government are so great that even very large taxes are not enough to pay them. Then the government borrows money, giving to the lender a *bond*, to show that the money is owed and will be paid. On this bond the government pays interest every year, and in the end expects to pay the principal. Of course the taxes have to be made greater so as to pay these charges.

10. The debts which governments have to carry in this way are very great. Cities borrow money, usually for erecting public buildings, paving streets, making sewers, and the like. Some city governments have been extravagant and dishonest, and in this way such cities have great debts with very little to show for them.

11. The debt of the federal government has been caused

principally by war. Each time the nation has had a war the government has had to borrow money to carry it on. The debt of the revolutionary war and of the war of 1812 was paid off in 1835. But in 1846 we fell into war with Mexico, and from 1861 to 1865 we had a great civil war. The latter especially was enormously costly. When the war ended, in 1865, the debt of the federal government was nearly three thousand millions of dollars (2,773 millions). The treasury paid out during one year ending with June, 1896, over thirty-five million dollars as interest on the existing debt, the principal of which even now amounts to nearly a thousand millions. Besides the interest on the debt, we have in the *pensions* another expense caused by the war. Soldiers and sailors who were disabled in the war, or who have since become unable to work, and widows and orphan children of war veterans, receive a sum of money each year from the federal treasury. In all nearly a million people are now receiving war pensions, and they were paid in the year ending with June, 1896, the sum of a hundred thirty-nine millions of dollars. So we are yet paying the cost of our great civil war from the national taxes, and it will be many years before the payment will be ended.

12. Wars and Taxes.—As we have seen, the great national debt has been created by wars. To pay this debt it is necessary for the people to submit to heavy taxes for many years. If we feel that the wars were necessary, we can endure these taxes patiently. But if we should be so foolish as to go to war from the mere desire to win victories—to get military “glory,” as it is called—then the

taxes, as well as the cost in blood and suffering, would be a price far too dear. No war is just unless it cannot be avoided without loss of liberty or honor.

13. What a shrewd English writer thought of the price of a war of glory it may be interesting to see. We should remember that a common nickname for England is "John Bull," as "Brother Jonathan" is for the United States.

Taxes the Price of Glory

SYDNEY SMITH*

JOHN BULL can inform Jonathan what are the inevitable consequences of being too fond of Glory:—TAXES! Taxes upon every article which enters into the mouth, or covers the back, or is placed under the foot; taxes upon everything which it is pleasant to see, hear, feel, smell, or taste; taxes upon warmth, light, and locomotion; taxes on everything on earth, and the waters under the earth; on everything that comes from abroad, or is grown at home; taxes on the raw material; taxes on every fresh value that is added to it by the industry of man; taxes on the sauce which pampers man's appetite, and the drug that restores him to health; on the ermine which decorates the Judge, and the rope which hangs the criminal; on the poor man's salt, and the rich man's spice; on the brass nails of the coffin, and the ribbons of the bride;—at bed or board, couchant or levant, we must pay.

The school-boy whips his taxed top; the beardless youth manages his taxed horse, with a taxed bridle, on a taxed road;—and the dying Englishman, pouring his medicine, which has

* The Rev. Sydney Smith was a clergyman of the Church of England, who died in 1845. He was the founder of the Edinburgh *Review*, and was famous as a wit and caustic critic.



UNITED STATES SOLDIERS.



paid seven per cent., into a spoon that has paid fifteen per cent., flings himself back upon his chintz-bed, which has paid twenty-two per cent., makes his will on an eight-pound stamp, and expires in the arms of an apothecary, who has paid a license of a hundred pounds for the privilege of putting him to death. His whole property is then immediately taxed from two to ten per cent. Besides the probate, large fees are demanded for burying him in the chancel; his virtues are handed down to posterity on taxed marble; and he is then gathered to his fathers,—to be taxed no more.

In addition to all this, the habit of dealing with large sums will make the Government avaricious and profuse; and the system itself will infallibly generate the base vermin of spies and informers, and a still more pestilent race of political tools and retainers of the meanest and most odious description;—while the prodigious patronage which the collecting of this splendid revenue will throw into the hands of Government will invest it with so vast an influence, and hold out such means and temptations to corruption, as all the virtue and public spirit, even of Republicans, will be unable to resist. Every wise Jonathan should remember this!

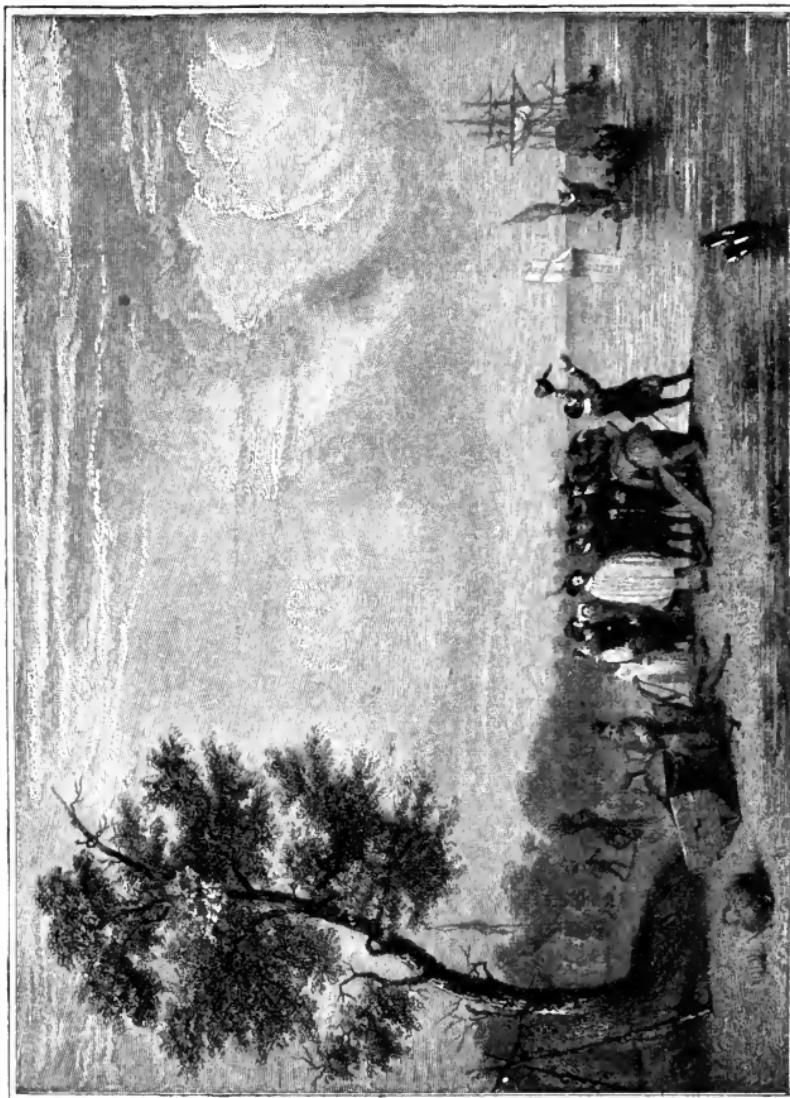
CHAPTER XV

Who We Are

1. Americans Not of One Race.—Much is said by some people about “Americans,” and Americans are quite right in being proud of their country. But, for all that, it is just as well for us not to look down on the people of other countries. The fact is that the white people of our republic all of them either were born in Europe or are the descendants of those who came from Europe not so very many years ago.

2. English.—The first European people who came to America, north of Florida, were English. They settled in Virginia in 1607, less than three hundred years ago.

3. But, in truth, not very many of us are descended from these early settlers. Other English people came to America throughout the seventeenth century and the eighteenth, and they have kept coming in the nineteenth. So quite a number of us are English in blood, as the national language of all of us is English. But how long we and our fathers and grandfathers have been living in this country is another question. And some of us really do not know when our first ancestors came from the old country to America, nor do we know what kind of people they were, or whether we could be proud of them or not, even if we did know. In many cases all we can be



THE FIRST ENGLISH SETTLERS LANDING IN VIRGINIA, 1607

The first permanent English settlement in the new world was at Jamestown, on the James River, Virginia. The river and the settlement were both named from James the First, who was then king of England.

quite sure of is that some time in the last three centuries our first American ancestor *did* come here from Europe, and here made his home and that of his children. Perhaps he was English; perhaps he was Scotch, or Welsh, or Irish. Many of those British peoples have emigrated to America all through our history, and many of them are coming over in our time.

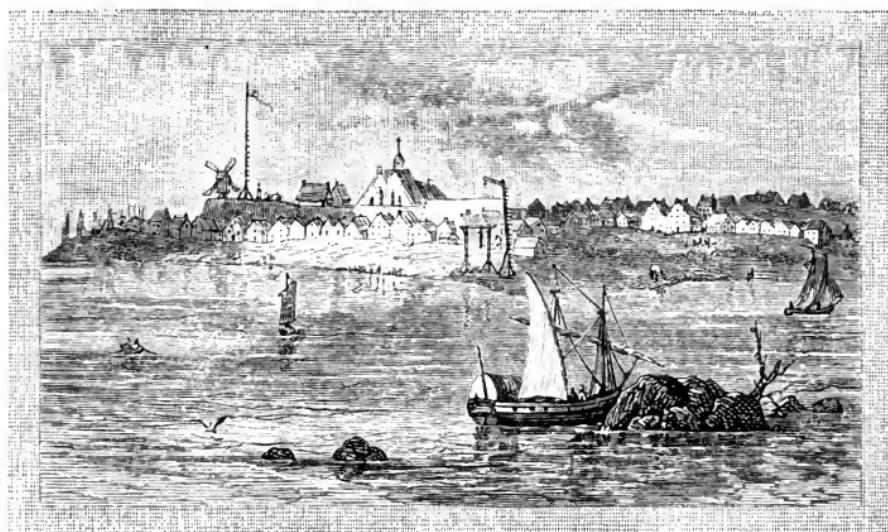
4. Dutch.—Then, it was not British people only who settled the first European colonies along the Atlantic. The first settlers of New York were Dutch, from Holland. After the English seized the colony the Dutch name “New Amsterdam” was changed to the English one which we know. But the Dutch colonists continued to live there, under the English flag, and to-day their descendants are yet found in the city and state of New York and elsewhere in the republic. Dutch names, such as Stuyvesant, Van Cortlandt, Van Rensselaer, Bogart, Van Dusen, Suydam, are yet common in some parts of New York.

5. Swedes.—In Delaware the earliest settlers were Swedes. But there were not many of them, and their colony was taken away by the Dutch, and was seized by the English when they took New Amsterdam. There are many Swedish people now living in the United States, but they or their ancestors have mostly come here recently.

6. Germans.—In Pennsylvania many Germans settled at a very early period, and their descendants live there to this day. “Pennsylvania Dutch” they were commonly called by their English neighbors in New York and New England, but, in fact, they were not Dutch at all, but

Germans. "Dutch" people come from Holland, not from Germany. But very many Germans have settled among us within the present century.

7. French.—There were many French emigrants who came to South Carolina, and some to New York, nearly two hundred years ago. They were driven out of their own country by the tyranny of a foolish king. But they



NEW AMSTERDAM, 1665

The Dutch village at the lower end of Manhattan Island, which has grown into the great city of New York.

were very excellent people, and they made good American citizens. And the first settlers in Louisiana and Michigan were French.

8. Americans.—In our times the descendants of all these European settlers, whether British, or Dutch, or Germans, or French, or Swedes, are simply *Americans*. They are all pretty much alike, using the same language,

having the same sorts of ideas, loving the republic and its flag, and proud of being American citizens.

9. Some of our greatest men have been from one of these colonial races, some from another. General Washington was English. General Andrew Jackson, who won the great victory of New Orleans in the war of 1812, and was twice president of the United States, was Scotch. Henry Laurens, of South Carolina, who was president of congress during the revolutionary war, was French. General Schuyler, of the revolutionary army, Martin Van Buren, president of the United States next after Jackson, and Hamilton Fish, one of our ablest secretaries of state, were of Dutch descent. Philip Sheridan, one of the most brilliant soldiers of the civil war, and later general in command of the armies of the United States, was Irish. But every one of these men was a thorough American.

10. **European Immigrants.**—During the century since the Constitution of the United States has been in force there has been a great increase in the coming of Europeans to America. Many millions of immigrants have settled in our cities and on the farms of the great West. Germans and Swedes, Norwegians and Danes, Bohemians, Irish, Italians, they have fairly swarmed across the Atlantic and have left their old homes in Europe to become citizens of our republic. So it is that we see these “foreigners,” as we are apt to call them, everywhere.

11. But they are not really foreigners. Nearly all of them have come here to make their homes because, for one reason or other, they like this country better than the one which they have left. So they become Americans.

12. Naturalization.—Our laws provide liberally for such newcomers. When a foreigner has lived here five years he may become a citizen of the United States, with all the rights and privileges of a citizen who has been born here. To be sure, a foreign-born citizen cannot become president of the United States. But, then, not many citizens are likely to be candidates for the presidency. Almost any court of law has the right to admit foreigners to citizenship. The law also provides that one who wishes to become a citizen must go before some court after he has lived here three years and declare his intention. This court gives the applicant a paper which states the facts—the “first paper,” as it is called. This certificate is presented to the court two years later when the applicant wishes to become a citizen. A certificate—the “second paper”—is granted by the second court, showing that the applicant has now become a citizen of the United States.

13. The admission of a foreigner to citizenship in the United States is known as *naturalization*, and such persons are called *naturalized* citizens.

14. Good Citizens.—A native of Europe who makes his home with us comes here, as has been said, because, on the whole, he prefers this country to the one which he has left. But he still loves the country of his birth. He is fond of its language, of its books, of its stories and its people. That is quite right. One who does not love his native country can hardly be expected to love the country of his adoption. All that we have a right to ask is that our adopted fellow-citizens put the United States of America first. They should learn its language, know its method of

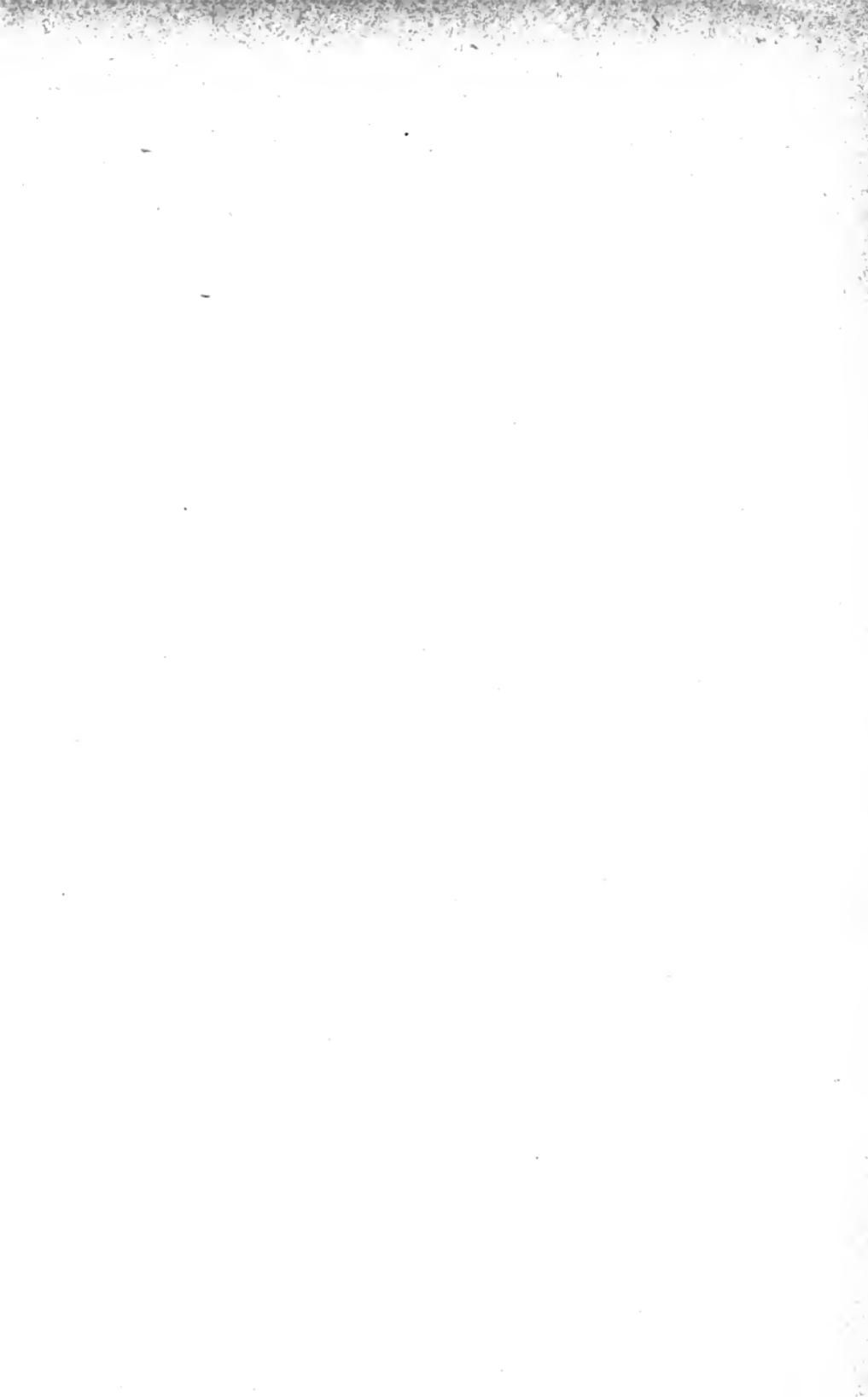
government, do their part towards seeing that it has good laws, and should obey the laws which are made. People who do these things and who earn an honest living are good Americans, wherever they were born.

15. And seeing that we are nearly all of us Europeans by race, it is very silly to look down on those who are merely more recent comers from our original home. Let us all try to be good American citizens.

16. People Red, Black, Yellow.—But whites are not the only people in our country. There are also red people, black people, and yellow people.

17. The Red Men.—When the whites first came to this country from Europe they found that the new lands which they had discovered were already inhabited by a strange race of red men—the “Indians” of Columbus (p. 49).

18. The Indians have a dusky red skin, high cheek-bones, black eyes, and coarse, straight black hair. They were an uncivilized folk when Columbus came. To be sure, there were Indian natives in Mexico and Peru, who lived in cities under a government which ruled a large population. But these semi-civilized Mexicans and Peruvians, with their great temples blazing with plates of gold, with their picture-writing and their palaces and their cultivated fields, were very different from the red savages of our country. These were mostly hunters and fishermen, though the women (“squaws”) did raise crops of maize, thus called “Indian corn,” and of beans. Any grain, like wheat, the English called “corn,” as they do to this day; but maize was a new plant to them. The mixture of corn





INDIAN WARFARE.

and beans we still use under its Indian name—"succotash." The homes of these people were mere temporary huts—"wigwams," we call them. All the Atlantic slope of the Alleghany Mountains was covered with dense forests, in which the red man roamed in search of game. Deer, bears, beavers, and other wild animals were abundant, and



A GROUP OF INDIANS AS THEY ARE TO-DAY

the Indians lived on their meat and clothed themselves in their skins. The weapons of these rude hunters were bows and arrows, clubs, hatchets ("tomahawks"), and knives. They had no iron, and their arrow-heads, tomahawks, and knives were made with great ingenuity of flint. Their shelter from the weather was a simple hut, a "wigwam," made of poles covered with bark. They built with birch

bark light boats ("canoes"), which boats they were very skilful in paddling.

19. People who lived thus by the chase, of course, had no cities and few cultivated fields. They roamed the woods in search of game, each separate tribe having its own "hunting grounds." The tribes were frequently at war with one another, and in these wars they were very treacherous and cruel. Their favorite mode of war was to lie in ambush for their enemy and to cut him down when he was least expecting it. Prisoners were commonly put to death by torture, often being burned at the stake.

20. Now, these savages were not very numerous, and they roamed over a vast wilderness in their hunting. But the European settlers cleared off the forests and planted the fields with their crops. In this way the wilderness was gradually lessened, and the Indians saw their hunting grounds destroyed. Besides, the land was not always bought by the whites from its red owners—often the newcomers simply took it. And when it was bought the simple Indians were often cheated. For these and other reasons the settlers and the natives often quarreled, and many bloody Indian wars were the result (p. 51). The savage warriors would lurk in the forests until they could find the settlers off the watch. Then the war-whoop and the blazing cabin would wake the terrified family from sleep, only to perish under the tomahawk. Men and women and helpless children alike were butchered, and their bloody scalps torn off to adorn the brutal victor.

21. But the white men in the end were always too strong for the red men, and now the time of Indian wars has prob-

ably gone forever. The tribes have melted away, dying rapidly from disease and war. Liquor, however, has been more deadly than either. The savages became very fond of the white man's strong drink—"firewater," the Indians called it—and it has ruined them. The remnants of the tribes now live on "reservations"—tracts of land set apart by the government for them. Then, every year the government pays them a certain amount of money, by way of pay for the land they have given up. In this way the Indians do not have to work for a living. The game is long since gone, so there is little use in hunting.

22. On some of the reservations, and in the Indian territory, the Indians have become educated. They have schools and churches, and are sometimes quite wealthy. Attempts have been made in late years to send the children of the other tribes to school. At Carlisle, in Pennsylvania, there is a school for Indian children, which is doing good work. And there is another at Hampton, Virginia.

23. The Hampton Institute is a school founded in 1870 for the training of young negroes to become industrious and skilful workmen, thus enabling them to live good lives and to earn a decent living. Such training was especially needed, as the negroes had only recently been freed from slavery, and had now for the first time to care for themselves. Ten years later the school was opened for Indians. The United States government pays for the education of 120 Indian boys and girls, and generous people pay for a few more each year, so that there are nearly 150 Indians in the school. Nearly 500 have attended the school, and have gone back with its education to the reservations. Very



A GRADUATING CLASS, INDIAN INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, CARLISLE, PENNSYLVANIA

few of these have made a bad record in their after-life. A very large majority of them have learned to be industrious and intelligent workmen. The boys have become farmers, blacksmiths, and carpenters; the girls have been taught sewing and housework. So, instead of being mere rude savages, they are intelligent and honest men and women.

24. It is certainly much better to send the Indians to school than it is to shoot them, and it seems to cost no more. If the young can learn to live like white men, to earn their own living by honest work, they will become good citizens of our republic. Certainly that is what they ought to be. If the Indians had always been treated honestly and kindly by the whites, it is more than likely that the most of them would now be civilized. But we must own that white men have often treated their red neighbors very badly. It has been necessary for the land to be used by civilized people; it would not be reasonable for it to lie idle for a mere hunting ground. However, we cannot always be proud of the way in which our people have got the land or of the way in which they have treated the red men.

The Indians are not very numerous. In 1870 it was estimated that there were 357,981 wild Indians and 25,731 civilized. In 1890, 58,806 civilized Indians were counted, and there were fewer wild ones than in 1870.

25. Two Stories of the Indian Wars.—The bloody Indian wars have been full of cruel massacres, desperate fights, and hair-breadth escapes. The story of Mrs. Dustin, of Haverhill, in Massachusetts, is one of the most thrilling of these. And the poem, by an unknown author,

commemorating a fight with the Indians in Maine, gives a quaint account of another.

Mrs. Dustin's Escape*

IN March, 1697, Thomas Dustin, of Haverhill, was at work in his field, when he heard the terrible whoop of Indians, and ran towards his house. He had eight children—the youngest only a week old. The mother was in bed with her infant, tended by her nurse, Mary Neff.

“Run for the garrison!” he shouted to his other children. They fled, the oldest carrying the youngest, while Mr. Dustin rushed into the stable for his horse. The Indians were close upon him. He could not save his wife; but would try and save some of the children. He came up with them. Which should he take? All were equally dear to him, and he would try to save all. The Indians reach the house, and seize Mrs. Dustin and Mary Neff. They dash the infant against a rock, and the mother beholds its bleeding corpse. They rush after the fleeing family. “Run for your lives!” shouts Mr. Dustin to his children, then leaps from his horse, shelters himself behind the animal, rests his gun across the horse's back, taking deliberate aim at the foremost Indian. He fires, springs into the saddle, and is away, with the bullets flying around him. He loads his gun while on the gallop, reaches his children, dismounts, and is ready for the pursuers; so, keeping them at bay, he reaches the garrison, saving all his children.

In a few moments, twenty-seven men, women and children in the settlement are massacred, their houses set on fire, and the Indians are fleeing toward Canada.

It was the middle of March. In the woods there was still

* From Coffin's “Old Times in the Colonies.”

much snow. The streams were swollen with its melting, and yet, with but one shoe, Mrs. Dustin began her march through the wilderness, driven by her captors. Her feet were torn and chilled. Every step was marked by her blood. Some of her fellow-captors grew faint and fell, and then the tomahawk dispatched them. All except Mrs. Dustin and Mary Neff were killed.

Three days brought them to the Indian rendezvous, a little island at the junction of the Merrimac and Contoocook Rivers, in Boscawen, New Hampshire. It was a place where the Indians could catch fish, and where Mrs. Dustin found a little boy, Samuel Leonardson, who had been a captive for more than a year, and who had learned the Indian language.

In a few days, all except twelve of the Indians started upon another marauding expedition. Upon their return, the captives would be taken to Canada. The woman who has seen her infant dashed against a stone has an heroic spirit. Death will be preferable to captivity. They who would be free must strike the blow that will give them freedom. She lays her plans.

"Ask the Indians where they strike with the tomahawk when they want to kill a person quick," she says to Samuel.

"Strike 'em here," the Indian replies to Samuel's question, placing his finger on Samuel's temples.

Little does the savage think that his own hatchet will be buried in his brains by the keen-eyed woman who watches his every movement. The Indian shows Samuel how to take off a scalp, all of which Mrs. Dustin observes.

Night comes, and she informs Mary Neff and Samuel of her plan, and stimulates them by her heroic courage.

There are twelve Indians in all who lie down to sleep, feeling that their captives cannot escape. No one keeps watch. The wigwam fires burn low. No sound breaks the stillness of the night except the waters of the Contoocook sweeping over its

rocky bed. Mrs. Dustin rises, seizes a tomahawk, gives one to Mary Neff, another to Samuel. Each selects a victim. A signal, and the hatchets descend, crushing through the skulls of the Indians, blow after blow in quick succession. It is the work of a minute, but in that brief time ten of the twelve have been killed; the two escape in the darkness!

The prisoners, prisoners no longer, gather up the provisions, take the guns of the Indians, scuttle all the canoes but one, and take their departure down the Merrimac. A thought comes to the woman: will their friends believe the story they have to tell?

A few strokes of the paddle bring them back to the island. Mrs. Dustin runs the scalping-knife around the brows of the dead Indians, takes their scalps, and starts once more, guiding the canoe with her paddle, landing, and carrying it past dangerous rapids, reaching Haverhill, sixty miles distant, with her bloody trophies, to the astonishment of her friends, who thought her dead. The Government of Massachusetts made her a present of fifty pounds; and in these later years the people of the Merrimac Valley, to commemorate her heroism, have reared a monument upon the spot where she achieved her liberty.

Lovewell's Fight

ANONYMOUS

*A popular ballad. Written shortly after the battle of May 8, 1725,
with the Indians*

OF worthy Captain LOVEWELL I purpose now to sing,
How valiantly he served his country and his king ;
He and his valiant soldiers did range the wood full wide,
And hardships they endured to quell the Indian's pride.

'Twas nigh unto Pigwacket, on the eighth day of May,
They spied a rebel Indian soon after break of day;
He on a bank was walking, upon a neck of land,
Which leads unto a pond as we're made to understand.

Our men resolved to have him, and traveled two miles round,
Until they met the Indian, who boldly stood his ground;
Then up speaks Captain LOVEWELL, "Take you good heed,"
says he,
"This rogue is to decoy us, I very plainly see.

" The Indians lie in ambush, some place nigh at hand,
In order to surround us upon this neck of land;
Therefore we'll march in order, and each man leave his pack ;
That we may briskly fight them when they make their attack."

They came unto this Indian, who did them thus defy,
As soon as they came nigh him, two guns he did let fly,
Which wounded Captain LOVEWELL, and likewise one man
more,
But when this rogue was running, they laid him in his gore.

Then having scalped the Indian, they went back to the spot,
Where they had laid their packs down, but there they found
them not,
For the Indians having spied them, when they them down did
lay,
Did seize them for their plunder, and carry them away.

These rebels lay in ambush, this very place hard by,
So that an English soldier did one of them espy,
And cried out, " Here's an Indian ; " with that they started out,
As fiercely as old lions, and hideously did shout.

With that our valiant English all gave a loud huzza,
To show the rebel Indians they feared them not a straw :
So now the fight began, and as fiercely as could be,
The Indians ran up to them, but soon were forced to flee.

Then spake up Captain LOVEWELL, when first the fight began,
" Fight on, my valiant heroes ! you see they fall like rain."
For as we are informed, the Indians were so thick,
A man could scarcely fire a gun and not some of them hit.

Then did the rebels try their best our soldiers to surround,
But they could not accomplish this because there was a pond,
To which our men retreated and covered all the rear,
The rogues were forced to flee them, although they skulked for
fear.

Two logs there were behind them that close together lay,
Without being discovered, they could not get away ;
Therefore our valiant English they traveled in a row,
And at a handsome distance as they were wont to go.

'Twas ten o'clock in the morning when first the fight begun,
And fiercely did continue until the setting sun ;
Excepting that the Indians some hours before 'twas night,
Drew off into the bushes and ceased a while to fight.

But soon again returned, in fierce and furious mood,
Shouting as in the morning, but yet not half so loud ;
For as we are informed, so thick and fast they fell,
Scarce twenty of their number at night did get home well.

And that our valiant English till midnight there did stay,
To see whether the rebels would have another fray ;
But they no more returning, they made off towards their home,
And brought away their wounded as far as they could come.

Of all our valiant English there were but thirty-four,
And of the rebel Indians there were about fourscore.
And sixteen of our English did safely home return,
The rest were killed and wounded, for which we all must
mourn.

Our worthy Captain LOVEWELL among them there did die,
They killed Lieut. ROBBINS, and wounded good young FRYE,
Who was our English Chaplain ; he many Indians slew,
And some of them he scalped when bullets round him flew.

Young FULLAM too I'll mention, because he fought so well,
Endeavoring to save a man, a sacrifice he fell:
But yet our valiant English in fight were ne'er dismayed,
But still they kept their motion, and WYMAN's Captain made,

Who shot the old chief Paugus, which did the foe defeat,
Then set his men in order, and brought off the retreat ;
And braving many dangers and hardships in the way,
They safe arrived at Dunstable, the thirteenth day of May.

26. The Africans.—The blacks in our country—“colored people,” or “negroes”—are of African descent. They live mostly in the states south of Pennsylvania and of the Ohio River, in Texas, and in the states on the west bank of the Mississippi, as far north as Missouri.

27. Just as the white settlers in America came from Europe, so the black settlers came in the first place from Africa. But there was this difference: the Europeans came of their own accord, because they thought they could do better here; but the Africans were brought over by force, in whole shiploads, as slaves of the whites.

28. By a slave we mean one who is not free to work

as he pleases, but whose work belongs by law to some one else. The owner gives the slave food and clothing and lodging, and takes care of him when sick. But beyond this the slave gets no wages, and he must work just when and where his master pleases. Slaves are bought and sold, too, about as horses are.

29. It was some dozen years after Englishmen made their first settlement at Jamestown, in Virginia (p. 202), when a Dutch ship came into that harbor with a cargo of negroes. Some of these were traded off to the settlers. These negroes were found very useful for working the tobacco fields, and it was not many years before more negroes were brought over from Africa, not only into Virginia, but also into all the other colonies.

30. We must remember that at that time the laws of about every nation permitted slaves to be owned. And they were owned at one time in every one of the thirteen colonies which were the beginning of the United States.

31. But there never were many negroes north of Maryland, and not long after the revolutionary war the laws of those northern states had been changed so that people were not permitted to have slaves. In the southern states, however, there were many negroes, and they were kept as slaves until only a few years ago.

32. New states were admitted into the Union, and those north of the Ohio River had laws forbidding slavery, while the new southern states had laws permitting slavery. Then the free states and the slave states began to quarrel over slavery. The main dispute was about the territories. The free-state people believed that con-

gress had the right to make laws forbidding slavery in the territories. The slave-state people thought that congress had no such right. And in 1860 and 1861, when it seemed likely that such laws would be passed, many of the southern states decided to leave the Union and to form a new republic of their own. They called it "The Confederate States of America" (p. 132).

33. But the rest of the states insisted that no state had a right to leave the Union without the consent of the others. Armies were formed on both sides, and there was a great civil war, which lasted four years. The armies of the Confederate States were finally defeated and broken up, and so the attempt to leave the Union failed. Then the Constitution of the United States was changed so as to forbid slavery anywhere in the republic. In this way all the negro slaves became free, and now black men have the same rights at law as white men.

34. The civil war was a very terrible and a very sad thing. Hundreds of thousands of men were killed and wounded in the battles, or died of diseases caused by the hardships of the campaigns. A vast amount of property was destroyed, and, as we saw (p. 199), the nation piled up a debt of thousands of millions of dollars, which is not yet all paid. The people on both sides were honest in thinking that they were right, and both northern and southern soldiers fought very bravely in the battles. We shall hope that our land will never again see a civil war.

35. Now we see how it is that there are so many black people in the southern states. The masses of them are ignorant, and many are idle and shiftless. Still, they work

in the fields and in the homes, and so are very useful. It is highly important that they should learn to be industrious and honest and capable of earning a good living by good work. Much is being done in the South to teach the blacks. There are common schools in which they learn to read and write and get some other knowledge. And there



NEGROES WORKING IN A COTTON FIELD

are industrial schools which teach them how to work properly at various trades.

36. As the negroes are here, and are now free citizens of the republic, it certainly is important that they should become good citizens.

37. The School at Tuskegee.—We have read about one school (p. 211) which is doing good work in educating negroes and Indians to be good citizens. Another of similar aim is at Tuskegee, Alabama, and is training many of the colored people. The most important purposes of the school are thus stated in the catalogue :

"In all the Industrial work these objects are kept in view, viz. :

- "1. To teach the dignity of labor.
- "2. To teach the students how to work, giving them a trade when thought best.
- "3. To enable students to pay a portion of their expenses in labor."

This is very sensible. The negroes in the southern states need, first of all, to learn steady industry, honesty, cleanliness of life and surroundings, and independent self-support. No one who fails in these respects can be respected by his neighbors or can really respect himself.

38. Yellow People—Chinese.—West of the Rocky Mountains there are many yellow people—the Chinese. Some of them live in eastern cities, often carrying on laundries. Generally they keep more or less of the dress of Chinese, and with their yellow skins, oblique eyes, long black "pig tails," and odd shoes and blouse, may be seen tripping along the crowded streets or busily ironing clothes in the laundry. But on the Pacific coast there are many thousands of them—so many that there is a part of San Francisco called the "Chinese quarter," in which the yellow people live in a crowded mass by themselves. Some are merchants and laundrymen; some are house servants, doing the work for which women are employed in most families; many are laborers, working in all manner of rough occupations.

39. One odd thing about them is that there are very few women among them. The men come here to get rich. They live on very little, lodging and eating as few white

people would be willing to do. In this way they save up their money, expecting some day to go home to China to live. If one of them dies, the others try to send his body back to China for burial.

40. The European laborers do not like the Chinese. They say that the Asiatics are not good Americans ; that they do not come here to live, and do not know or care anything about the republic ; that they live as no American can, and so are able to work for wages which would not keep an American family ; that in the end back they go to China, carrying their savings with them. Congress has made laws, therefore, forbidding any more Chinese laborers to come here. It cannot be many years, under these laws, before the Chinese laborers will disappear from our republic. There are not many of them now. In 1860 there were 34,933 ; in 1870, 63,199 ; in 1880, 105,465 ; in 1890, 107,475. So we see how rapidly their numbers increased until the laws forbade their coming.

CHAPTER XVI

Who Are Our Rulers

1. The Law-Makers.—We have seen that our republic has a great number of public officers.

To begin with, there are all the law-making bodies. At Washington is the federal congress, meeting every year for months at a time, and making laws for the nation. At each of the forty-five state capitals is a legislature, meeting either every year or every other year, and making laws for the state. Several territories have legislatures. At each county seat is some sort of county board, many of them meeting more than once in a year, and making laws for the county. Then, every city has its council, and in many states the village has a village board, meeting weekly, as a rule, and making laws for the city or the village.

2. Many sorts of laws are made. Some of them forbid certain things to be done—like the law against stealing. Other laws command something to be done—like the law which compels people to be vaccinated, so as to avoid small-pox. Many laws, in nation, state, county, and city, are tax laws; that is, they fix the amount and the kind of taxes which the people shall pay into the public treasury. Many more laws decide how this money shall be spent. Part of it goes for the salaries of public officers; part for public buildings, like court-houses, prisons, schools,

and post-offices ; part of it for public services, like paving streets, carrying the mails, providing fire-engines. And there are many other kinds of laws.

3. Now, how are all these law-makers appointed ? In almost every case they are elected by the people. The United States senators, to be sure, are chosen by the state legislatures. But the people elect the members of the legislatures. And the people elect the members of the national house of representatives, of the state legislatures, of the various county boards, and of the city councils. So we may say that in the end *the people elect all the law-makers.*

4. **The Administrative Officers.**—Then, there are many officers busy in carrying out the laws. First of all, of course, is the president of the United States. Under his authority are his cabinet, the eight heads of departments, with the great number of officials under each, some in Washington, and many soldiers, postmasters and clerks, customs officers, and the like, scattered over the Union. Altogether there are nearly two hundred thousand federal officers subject to the direction of the president—quite an army, we see.

5. In each of the forty-five states there is a similar army, though much smaller, with a governor at the head. Besides the state officials, there are included also those in the counties, cities, towns, and villages. These people are busy with all the different kinds of public work. Many of them are occupied with the public money, assessors deciding the value of property on which taxes must be paid, others receiving payment of the taxes and giving the

taxpayer receipts, others taking charge of the money thus collected and paying it out as directed by law.

6. Who appoints all these people to office? The president of the United States is chosen by election, and the electors are chosen by the people. The president appoints the most important of the federal officers, and they in turn, or some of them, appoint the inferior officers. We must remember that there are many appointments which the president cannot make without the approval of the senate.

7. To illustrate, we may take a post-office in a large city, like Chicago. The postmaster has charge. He is appointed by the president, with the approval of the senate. There is a number of clerks and letter-carriers. These are appointed by the postmaster-general, and the most of them can be removed only for bad conduct.

8. The postmasters in small places are appointed by the postmaster-general.

9. If we come to the states, we find that some of the officers are appointed by some one higher in authority, and many are elected by the people. The governor is always chosen by the people, as are the sheriffs, the mayors, and many more.

10. So we see that the officers who carry out the laws are either *elected by the people* or are appointed, directly or indirectly, by some one who *is* elected by the people.

11. **The Courts of Law.**—The federal judges are all appointed by the president of the United States. Of course the senate has to be consulted. In some of the states, as in Massachusetts, the governor appoints the

judges. But in most of the states the judges are elected by the people. Now, we remember that the people elect the governors, and that the electors who choose the president, and the state legislatures which choose the senators, are also elected by the people. So we see that the judges are either *elected by the people* or are appointed, directly or indirectly, by some one who *is* elected by the people.

12. How the Officers Are Chosen.—Then, we are not far out of the way if we say that *our whole government consists of officers who are chosen by the people*. To be sure, the postmaster-general may appoint a village postmaster. But the postmaster-general is appointed by the president, with the approval of the senate. And the president is really elected by the people. The electors whom the people choose would never think of voting for any one but the man nominated by their political party. The senators, too, are chosen by legislatures elected by the people. So, after all, the village postmaster depends for his office on the election by the people.

13. Elections.—We are all familiar with elections. They are held often in November; many of them, especially for local officers, in the spring; in a few states, in August or September or October. Votes are cast by means of printed papers called *ballots*. Each voter has the right to cast one ballot. It is put into a locked box—the *ballot-box*. At night, when the voting is ended, the ballot-box is unlocked and the votes are counted. Then the officers who have charge of the ballot-box make a report to the proper election officers. In this way it is

found out who has the most votes, and he is *elected*. Sometimes one person has more than half of all the votes cast. This is a *majority*. In other cases no one has a majority, but one person has more votes than any one else. This is a *plurality*. The person who has a majority is always elected, and for most offices a plurality also elects.

14. Who Are "the People"?—Now, who are *the people* who elect so many officers in our republic? Is it *all* the people? Surely not. Many are children too young to vote. And in most of the states the women do not vote, either. So it is plain that the men who have the right to vote are less than half of all the people.

15. But the laws are not the same in all the states. In some states a man has the right to vote who, in some other states, would not have that right. In many states no one can vote unless he is a citizen of the United States, which, indeed, ought to be the law everywhere. In a few states, however, one who has taken his "first papers," although he is not a citizen, has the right to vote. In a few states, also, no one may vote unless he can read and write, which surely seems a reasonable requirement. But in most of the states ignorance is no bar to voting.

16. The States Decide Who May Vote.—We see from what has been said that it is *the states* that make the laws which give or withhold the right to vote. The United States government can make no such laws. The states may do very nearly as they please. So it is that some states allow women to vote at all elections. Some allow women to vote at elections for school officers, and many do not

allow women to vote at all. If we wish to know who may vote, then, we must look in the constitution and laws of each of the states.

17. The People Who Vote Are the Real Rulers.—
And when we speak of *the people* as electing public officers, we mean *the people who have the right to vote*.

18. Our whole republic depends in the end on the wisdom of the people in voting. And so the safety and success of the republic will depend very largely on what sort of voters we have.

19. All voters ought to know for what they are voting. They ought to understand what the republic is, what are the duties of public officers, and why they prefer one man or one political party instead of another. Ignorant voters are easily led by dishonest and selfish politicians, and are likely to elect men who want office because they can make money out of it for themselves.

Ignorant voters are a danger to the republic.

20. All voters should be honest in casting their votes. A vote is not a piece of personal property, like a calf or a hog. It is, in fact, *a trust* for the public use. One is not voting for himself alone, but for the welfare of all the people—for those who cannot vote as well as for those who can. And, then, when a voter sells his vote he is guilty of shameless treachery to the republic. He is a traitor quite as truly as was Benedict Arnold in the revolutionary war.

But the one who buys the vote is no better. He also is a criminal, and a very dangerous one.

Any one who sells or buys a vote should never be allowed again to vote or hold office in our republic.

21. The Real State.—The machinery of government is a mere means of the people to attain certain ends. No machinery will run of itself. No government is worth much unless honest and able men are selected to do its work. And such men never will be selected unless the people, who are the real rulers, themselves have high ideals of honesty and good government. What a famous English judge thought of this a century and more ago, and what a still more famous English judge thought three hundred years ago, it may be worth while to read.

What Constitutes a State ?

SIR WILLIAM JONES *

WHAT constitutes a state ?

Not high-raised battlements or labored mound,
 Thick wall or moated gate;
Not cities proud, with spires and turrets crowned;
 Not bays and broad-arm ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;

 Not starred and spangled courts,
Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.
 No ! *Men*—high-minded *men*—
With powers as far above dull brutes endued,
 In forest, brake, or den,
As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude;

 Men, who their duties know,
But know their rights, and, knowing, dare maintain;
 Prevent the long-aimed blow,
And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain.

* Sir William Jones, born 1746, died 1794, was a famous English scholar and jurist.

These constitute a state;
And sovereign law, that state's collected will,
O'er thrones and globes elate
Sits empress, crowning good, repressing ill.

* * * *

The True Greatness of Nations

LORD BACON *

THE greatness of an estate, in bulk and territory, doth fall under measure ; and the greatness of finance and revenue doth fall under computation. The population may appear by musters ; and the number and greatness of cities and towns by cards and maps. But yet there is not anything, amongst civil affairs, more subject to error, than the right valuation and true judgment concerning the power and forces of an estate. The kingdom of heaven is compared, not to any great kernel, or nut, but to a grain of mustard seed ; which is one of the least grains, but hath in it a property and spirit hastily to get up and spread. So are there states great in territory, and yet not apt to enlarge or command ; and some that have but a small dimension of stem, and yet are apt to be the foundation of great monarchies.

Walled towns, stored arsenals and armories, goodly races of horses, chariots of war, elephants, ordnance, artillery, and the like : all this is but a sheep in a lion's skin, except the breed and disposition of the people be stout and warlike. Nay, number itself in armies importeth not much, where the people are of weak courage ; for, as Virgil saith : *It never troubles the wolf how many the sheep be.* The army of the Persians,

* Lord Bacon, born 1560, died 1626, was one of the greatest writers and thinkers in the history of England. He was lord high chancellor of the kingdom, and the author of immortal works of a varied character.

in the plains of Arbela, was such a vast sea of people as it did somewhat astonish the commanders in Alexander's army ; who came to him, therefore, and wished him to set upon them by night ; but he answered, *He would not pilfer the victory* ; and the defeat was easy. When Tigranes, the Armenian, being encamped upon a hill with four hundred thousand men, discovered the army of the Romans, being not above fourteen thousand, marching towards him, he made himself merry with it, and said, *Yonder men are too many for an embassage and too few for a fight*. But, before the sun set, he found them enough to give him the chase with infinite slaughter.

22. Some of Our Advantages.—Our republic has some great advantages over many other nations.

One of these is that we govern ourselves. There is no king or nobleman who inherits from his father the right to govern us. We choose our own law-makers, and if we dislike the laws they make, we choose others in their place. If we are governed badly, we know that it is our own fault.

23. We have a good system of government. Our national Constitution was made by some of the wisest men who ever lived, and we have become used to it. It fits us, like a well-made suit of clothes.

24. We have free speech and a free press, the right to organize parties or churches as we like, the right to assemble when and where we please for a public meeting. Many of these things are not permitted under some governments in Europe.

25. Some of Our Defects.—While we have reason to love our country and to be proud of it, if we are honest we must admit that there are some serious faults in the gov-

ernment—faults which true patriots will do all in their power to remedy.

26. Many people who hold public office are not honest. They take advantage of every opportunity to get money for themselves ; they are in politics, not for the public good, but for their private gain. They are bad servants of the people.

27. Party spirit is a bad thing. People belong to a political party, and learn to hate those who belong to any other. We vote blindly for a candidate merely because he has our party name, without stopping to inquire whether he is honest and capable or not. We are too apt to think that members of the other party are all enemies of the state. In fact, there are honest men and patriots in all parties. We ought to learn to differ in opinion without hating one another.

28. Indifference to public duty is another bad thing. Every citizen should know about the government and what it is doing. Every voter should take pains to vote, and to make sure that he does not vote for bad men. If people do nothing to make politics good, they have no right to complain when they find corrupt politicians in office. In fact, everybody ought to be a politician. That name should not be a term of reproach, as it often is now.

29. People are too eager to get rich rapidly. Many have done that. But many more have failed. And the eager strain after sudden wealth makes men envious of those who succeed, and too often teaches dishonesty as a less evil than poverty. In fact, every one ought to be able to earn an honest living, and, if possible, to lay up money for

the future. But absolute honesty is better than all the riches of all the millionaires.

30. Another evil is that we are apt to pay least attention to what is going on nearest home. We get excited about the tariff, or the kind of money the government issues, or some foreign war, and forget all about our own local government. One of the worst defects in our republic is the bad government of our cities. If people would try as hard to get honest aldermen as they do to get their candidate for president elected, we should have a much better government at every point. If city and county polities are full of corruption and inefficiency, state and national politics will not be much better. Patriotism, like charity, should begin at home.

31. Some of Our Needs.—In a free republic all the citizens ought to be *intelligent*. Every one should know about the government, and should understand his rights and his duties as a citizen.

32. We need more *independence*, less following party leaders. Voters should make up their own minds as to what is for the public good, and then vote as dictated by conscience rather than by a party.

33. We need a higher sense of *honor*. We should feel that self-respect is better than riches, and that no one can do a mean or dishonorable thing without losing respect for himself. But dishonesty in politics and in public office is both mean and dishonorable.

34. We need a more exalted *patriotism*. We should love our country so well that we not merely are proud of its great deeds, but also are jealous of its fair fame. We

should be ready, if need be, to die in its defense, as so many brave men have done on the field of battle. We should also live in its service, doing all in our power to keep it free from reproach.

35. Our National Hymn.—Samuel F. Smith was born in Boston in 1808, and graduated at Harvard College in 1829, in the same class with Oliver Wendell Holmes. It was at a reunion of that class that Dr. Holmes read a droll poem called “The Boys,” in which he referred to Dr. Smith in the following lines :

And there's a nice youngster of excellent pith—
Fate tried to conceal him by naming him Smith;
But he shouted a song for the brave and the free—
Just read on his medal, “My country,—of thee!”

36. “America” was written in 1832 for a children’s Sunday-school meeting in Boston. It is now the favorite national hymn. Dr. Smith died in 1895.

America

S. F. SMITH

My country ! 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of liberty,
Of thee I sing ;
Land where my fathers died,
Land of the pilgrims' pride;
From every mountain side,
Let freedom ring.

My native country ! thee,
Land of the noble free,
Thy name I love:

I love thy rocks and rills,
Thy woods and templed hills;
My heart with rapture thrills,
Like that above.

Let music swell the breeze,
And ring from all the trees,
Sweet freedom's song;
Let mortal tongues awake,
Let all that breathe partake,
Let rocks their silence break,
The sound prolong.

Our fathers' God ! to thee,
Author of Liberty !
To thee we sing;
Long may our land be bright
With freedom's holy light;
Protect us by thy might,
Great God, our King !

APPENDIX A

A Few Words to Teachers

If a book of this kind accomplishes its purpose it must, first of all, awaken interest in the subject of which it treats. Such interest, however, can never be sated by the information which the book supplies. At every point the intelligent reader will have a multitude of queries—queries, many of which the teacher will wish to answer on the spot. But for many others it will be better to direct the inquirer to suitable books. Thus the discussions in the class-room may be made the means of giving intelligent direction to aroused curiosity and of providing an immediate motive for a wider range of reading.

This will be true especially of the historical questions which will from time to time be raised. Of course “The Young American” is in no sense a history. So far as it treats our history it is merely in order to illumine existing facts—to make plain how our government came to be what it is. Obviously, such a treatment of history cannot be, even in an elementary sense, complete, nor can it always be in chronological order. But it will fully answer its purpose if it does make plain the reasons for things, and if also it inflames desire for wider knowledge of the sequence of our national life.

So far as the structure and working of our government are concerned, it has been necessary to speak in quite general terms. But to give the book living interest the teacher will find it necessary, as far as possible, to make everything individual and local.

For instance, with regard to the national government, the reader should find out such facts as these : Who is now the president of the United States, and who the vice-president ; in what year they were elected, and as the candidates of what political party ; when inaugurated, and on what date their term will expire ; who are the United States senators from his state, when each was elected, and from what political party ; who is the representative in congress from his district, when he was elected, and what is his party ; who is his postmaster ; who is the United States district judge for his district ?

With regard to the state government, there should be a similar inquiry as to the governor, lieutenant-governor (if there is one), the local

members of the state legislature, the county judge, the justice of the peace, and any other courts.

There should be the same facts ascertained with reference to the county, village, town, and city government in which one lives. As regards the local government, also, there should be an inquiry as to how far that corresponds with the general statements of the book, and how it differs.

In other words, the reader should be made to apply everything he learns about government just as far as possible to his actual local conditions. Thus he will realize that government is something which is about him all the time, and not merely a thing told about in books.

As far as possible, illustrative material should be brought into the class. A coin, a piece of paper currency, "greenback," silver certificate, and national bank note—a sample ballot, an election notice, a tax notice—anything and everything which can be had to show the actual working of any branch of government—all these will be of great value.

The readers should be encouraged to ask questions, and to tell anything which they may know bearing on the subject.

It will be seen that throughout the book there are not many notes and explanations. The author expects the teacher to be the living commentary. This is the only adequate method. Classes differ widely in their attainments and needs. The teacher is the only one who can adapt a given book to the special needs for which he has to provide.

But the teacher can do more than direct the intelligence of his class to a comprehension of the structure of the republic. Patriotism in feeling can be taught as well. In many ways patriotic emotion can be developed and cherished, and, above all, if the teacher can implant a keen sense of the *duty* of a citizen, the work will become of deep significance to the future welfare of our beloved country. If the present book can be used as an efficient aid to the teacher in such an undertaking, the author will be profoundly grateful.

APPENDIX B

A Brief Account of the Constitution of the United States*

THE Constitution of the United States, briefly mentioned on page 97 and page 98, was made by a convention of our wisest men, which met

* The full text of the Constitution may be found in almost any school text-book on the history of the United States or on civil government.

at Philadelphia in 1787. The Constitution consists of a short preface, commonly called the *preamble*; of seven parts, called *articles*; and of fifteen additions, called *amendments*. These amendments have been made at different times, the last having been adopted in 1870.

THE PREAMBLE

"We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America."

Article I

This article treats of *federal laws*. It is divided into ten parts, called *sections*.

The first six of these sections provide for the federal law-making body, the *congress* (p. 121).

The seventh section prescribes the methods which congress shall follow in making laws.

The eighth section contains the *powers* of congress—that is, the kinds of laws which congress may make.

The ninth section contains *prohibitions* on congress—that is, the kinds of laws which congress may *not* make.

The tenth section contains prohibitions on the *states*—that is, the things which neither the constitutions nor the laws of the states must permit.

Article II

This article treats of the *enforcement* of federal laws. It is divided into four sections.

The first section provides for the federal *executive*—that is, the president of the United States (p. 128). It prescribes the mode of his election, what sort of person may be elected, what shall be done in case of the president's death, and other matters.

The second section contains the *powers* of the president—that is, the things which he has a *right* to do.

The third section contains the *duties* of the president—that is, the things which he *must* do.*

* In this section there is one thing which is rather a *power* than a *duty*, and which therefore might better have been put in the second section—the power to summon congress in special session, and to adjourn it under certain circumstances.

The fourth section prescribes what shall be done in case the president, or any of the officers under him, shall misbehave in office.

Article III

This article treats of the way in which the federal laws and Constitution are *explained*, and of how justice is done in case of dispute about the meaning of these laws, or in case they are broken. It is divided into three sections.

The first section provides for the federal *courts* (p. 192)—“one supreme court, and . . . such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish.”

The second section contains the *powers* of the federal courts—that is, what sorts of lawsuits they may decide.

The third section defines the crime of *treason*, and prescribes how it may, and how it may not, be punished.

Article IV

This article treats of the *states*. It is divided into four sections.

The first and second sections detail some duties of the states to one another.

The third section prescribes how new states may be admitted into the Union (p. 101), and gives congress the control of the federal territory (p. 106).

The fourth section details some duties of the Union to the separate states.

Article V

This article treats of the way in which the federal Constitution may be *amended*—that is, changed in any way by alteration or addition. It is in the way here prescribed that the fifteen *amendments* (p. 241, 243) have been adopted.

Article VI

This article (in three sections) contains some miscellaneous agreements.

The most important is the second section, which provides that the Constitution, laws, and treaties of the United States “shall be the supreme law of the land,” and that no state may make any law which shall conflict with them, or with any part of them.

Article VII

This article provided that as soon as nine of the thirteen states should accept the Constitution, the government for which it provided should at once go into effect.

It has been said that the convention which framed the Constitution met at Philadelphia in 1787. General Washington presided. The work was finished in the early autumn, and the congress at once sent the proposed plan of government to the states. They approved it, and so, as provided in the seventh article, the new government was formed. Senators and representatives were elected from the several states, and George Washington was unanimously elected president. The new congress met at New York on the 4th of March, 1789. Thus this is the date, every second year, of the beginning of the term of a new congress, and every fourth year of the inauguration of a new president.

THE AMENDMENTS

From time to time changes and additions have been made in the way prescribed in Article V. There are now fifteen of these *amendments*.

The first ten amendments were all adopted in the first term of Washington as president, and are further *prohibitions* on congress, or on the federal courts—that is, they contain a list of things which neither congress nor the courts may do.

The eleventh amendment, adopted in 1798, is another prohibition on the federal courts.

The twelfth amendment changes the way of electing the president and vice-president. The old way, as provided in Article II, was found to be very clumsy, so this amendment was made (in 1804).

The last three amendments were adopted after the civil war. The thirteenth prohibits slavery. The fourteenth has several sections relating to citizenship, elections, public office, and the public debt. The fifteenth amendment is a prohibition on the states, with reference to elections.

APPENDIX C

The Constitutions of the States

We have seen (p. 98) that each state in the Union has a constitution of its own. Just as the federal Constitution was framed by a convention of men elected from the several states, so a state constitution is drawn up by a convention elected by the people of the state. Usually the people of the state then vote on the question of accepting the constitution thus proposed.

The state constitutions are alike in providing for a government consisting of a legislature in two houses, a governor, and law courts. Then, there are sections dealing with the powers and duties of these different branches of the government, and many sections containing prohibitions, especially on the legislature. There is always an article containing the way in which the constitution may be amended, and usually several others relating to different kinds of state business—education, counties, cities, finance, and the like.

A state constitution is often very long—much longer than the Constitution of the United States.

Each reader should, by all means, get a copy of the constitution of his state and see what it contains.



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